AN ACCOUNT OF PEMBROKE CASTLE, IN WALES.

With a VIEW *of it in its Preſent State.*

PEMBROKE Caſtle was, according to Caradoc of Lhancarvon, founded by Arnulph, ſon of Roger de Montgomery, earl of Shrewſbury, in the reign of William 1, in 1094. Other writers, among whom is Giraldus Cambrenſis, place the era of its erection in the reign of Henry 1. He ſays it was only a ſlight work, compoſed chiefly of ſurf and twigs.

It was afterward rebuilt, probably on account of its weakneſs, or, as ſome ſay, from having been deſtroyed by fire. This was performed by Giraldus, the king's lieutenant in thoſe parts, who, in the year 1106, rebuilt it, as Caradoc ſays, in a place called Congo th Feckon. This manner of expreſſion makes it ſeem as if Giraldus had choſen a different ſpot from that on which the former caſtle ſtood; and yet the word *rebuilt*, implies that the ſame foundations were made uſe of. Shortly after its reedification, it was ſurpriſed, plundered, and burnt by Cadwgar ap Blethyn, who carried away priſoners the wife and children of Giraldus, he himſelf having made his way through the privy. It is ſaid to have been again rebuilt by Owen the ſon of Cadwgar ap Blethyn.

The noble ruin of this caſtle covers the whole of a large rock, which deſcends in a particular cliff on every ſide, except toward the town of Pembroke, where it is almoſt encompaſſed by one of thoſe winding eſtuaries, which, being fed by ſome ſmall rivers, extend into the country toward Milford-haven. It appears to have been of Norman architecture, mixed with ancient Britiſh, and very large and ſtrong, being double warded.

The moſt remarkable features of this ruin are the gate, or grand entrance, which is ſtill entire, and the juliet, or high round tower, in the inner ward. The walls of this tower are four feet in thickneſs, the diameter of the ſpace within is twenty-five and the height ſeventy-five to the crown of the dome; the upper part of the tower being gathered into a roof almoſt like a cone, and the top covered with a milliſtone from viſible marks in the walls, it appears that its height was originally divided by four floors. The ruined chapel alſo is a conſpicuous object viewed externally; and immediately underneath it, in the body of the rock, is a grand cavern, called the Wogan, which opens, with a wide mouth, toward the river. It is deemed its natural cavern; but the manner of formation, which is correctly circular, fifty three feet in diameter, and the height proportionable to the diameter, does not ſeem to give credit to ſuch an opinion. A communication from the cavern to the caſtle was made by a ſpiral ſtaircaſe, on the outſide of the rock; the entrance was barricaded with a ſtrong wall, partly remaining, through which there is now a large doorway opened to the ſhore of the river, on the margin of which the foundations of an outwork may be traced among ſhrubs and brambles; and hence this marvellous cavern appears to have been leſs a place of concealment than an avowed ſallyport or regular entrance from the river. In the outer ward of the caſtle is the chamber where Henry VII was born; and in remembrance of this event a chimney was built, ornamented with his arms and badges.

In 1648, colonel Langhorn, Powell, and Poyer, being diſpleaſed with the parliament, declared for the king, and held the town and caſtle four months; but Cromwell obliged them to ſurrender, and afterward diſmantled the caſtle. Some round ſtones, which the beſiegers fired againſt the caſtle to kill the garriſon by ſhivering the pavement, have been found in the area, now a bowling-green.

Curious PARALLEL *between the* CIRCULATION *of the* BLOOD *and the* CIRCULATION *of* WEALTH *in a* STATE.

[Translated from Canard's 'Principes d'Economie Politique.']

WE have noticed before the marks of ſimilarity which ſubſiſt between the circulation of the blood and the circulation of labour in a commercial ſtate. Let us prolong this obſervation as far as it can be carried with propriety, and analyſe all the ſymptoms of reſemblance between theſe two modes of circulation; but, before we proceed, it is neceſſary to explain the nature of the circulation of the blood. 1. The blood being diſſeminated in every part of the lungs, and contained in the extremities of the ramifications of an infinite number of veins, flows toward the heart in veſſels which always move in union together, and ends by iſſuing at a ſingle large vein, which is the pulmonary vein, from which it introduces itſelf into the left ventricle of the heart. 2. In proportion as the blood arrives, the action of this organ compreſſes it, and forces it out, in order to convey it into the aorta, or great artery; it then flows away to a diſtance from the heart, and ſpreads itſelf over all the parts of the body by a ſeries of diverging ramifications, which terminate in an infinite number of ſmall arteries. 3. All theſe ſmall veſſels open, at their extremities, to as many little veins, which receive the blood, and convey it back to the heart by a ſimilar but contrary courſe; that is, by a converging ramification, till it ends at a ſingle vein, which is called the *vena cava*, from which it introduces itſelf into the right ventricle of the heart. 4. In proportion as the blood approaches, the compreſſion of this organ forces it out, and impels it toward the pulmonary artery, from which it flows to a diſtance from the heart, and ſpreads itſelf ſucceſſively over every part of the lungs. 5. The extremities of theſe ramifications correſpond to as many ſmall veins, in which the blood gets vent, and returns by the pulmonary vein into the right ventricle of the heart, to renew its circulation, as we have ſhewn before. It is evident that the blood, being divided over all the parts of the body, flops at the heart by a converging ramification, and returns from the heart by a diverging ramification; that, when it arrives at the extremity of this ramification, it returns back to the heart by a ſecond converging ramification, and flows out again by a ſecond diverging ramification. We may therefore conſider the ſyſtem of the circulation of the blood as compoſed of four different ramifications; that is, two converging and two diverging ramifications, which alternately convey the blood back to the heart, and direct its courſe when it comes out from the heart. The ſyſtem of the arteries, through which the blood flows as it retires from the heart, forms an analogous and correſponding ramification to the ſyſtem of the veins, through which the blood returns to the heart: ſo that the ſyſtem of the pulmonary arteries is ſimilar and correſpondent to the ſyſtem of the pulmonary veins: and the ſyſtem of all the ramifications of the aorta is analogous to the ſyſtem of all the ramifications of the vena cava. We now proceed to analyſe the circulation of labour, in order to compare it with the circulation of the blood. I conſider the warehouſes of merchants as the centre of circulation; it is in them that all the produce of labour is collected, that is, where the manufactures are finally depoſited which have received from the different branches of induſtry the accumulated ſum of labour which conſtitutes their value. In proportion as they arrive at this receptacle, they iſſue from it gradually, and find their way to the ſhops of tradeſmen, where they

receive their laſt degree of diverging ramification from the dealers by retail. All the individuals who buy for their conſumption, compoſe as many ſmall veſſels of this latter ramification: it is with them likewiſe that a ſimilar circulation of money takes place, but in a contrary direction: the money flows from the hands of every conſumer, and ſettles in the ſhops of the retailers; afterward it continues its courſe, from the different ſhops, into the warehouſes of the merchants, whence it had originally iſſued. In proportion as this money enters into the merchant's cheſt, he diſpoſes of it among the different branches which had furniſhed their proportions of labour, by a ſeries of correſponding ramifications, and which bear a ſtrong reſemblance to thoſe which produced the labour, though in a different direction. When this courſe of ſpecie has ceaſed, it diſperſes itſelf among the proprietors of fixed property, and the different claſſes of labourers and manufacturers. Wherever it ſtops, conſumption immediately begins; that is, the money received by the manufacturers or workmen, and the proprietors of land and capital, and which they do not circulate further for the augmentation of their profits, is employed for the purpoſe of conſumption. It is therefore with them that the laſt diverging ramification of the merchandize which has iſſued from the warehouſes finally ſettles. It is with them likewiſe that the converging circulation of the money, which iſſues from their hands to return to the warehouſes, commences; that is, they form the terminating point of the diverging ramification of money along with the extremities of its converging ramification, in the ſame manner as the blood finds its way from vein to vein at the laſt ramifications of the veins and arteries. The general circulation of the produce of labour has therefore two different ſyſtems of ramifications; the firſt, which conveys this produce into the warehouſe, and which I ſhall call the ramification of labour; the ſecond, which conveys the merchandiſe from the warehouſe of the wholeſale dealer to the moſt diſtant ramifications where it is thrown into conſumption; and this I call the ramification of merchandiſe. Both theſe ramifications have a correſpondent and ſimilar ramification of money, ſo that every veſſel or receptacle of labour or merchandiſe correſponds with a circulating ramification of money of the ſame value, which flows in a contrary direction: as for every veſſel of the ramification of the vena cava there is an analogous veſſel of the ramification of the aorta, and in like manner for the ramifications of the pulmonary artery and vein. The warehouſe of the merchant may be compared with one of the ventricles of the heart, and his ſtrong cheſt with the other. Not only every dealer's ſhop may be conſidered as the centre of a quadruple ramification, but alſo any deſcription of property whatſoever. For inſtance, a manufacture of cloth; when the wrought ſtuff reaches the warehouſe of the manufacturer, it then contains all the labour which the wool has received before it reached the manufacturer's hand, and likewiſe the additional labour of the manufacturer; it is therefore a converging ramification of labour, which terminates in the warehouſe of the merchant. This cloth iſſues from the warehouſe, and branches into the ſeveral ſhops of the retailers, to find its way ultimately to the conſumers. The money that comes from their hands returns to the manufacturer by a ſimilar ramification to that which put the cloth to ſale; then it returns to the purchaſers and providers of labour by a ramification of the ſame nature. In this manner the warehouſe of the manufacturer is the centre of two ramifications; the one of labour, and the other of merchandiſe, and likewiſe of two ramifications of circulating medium or money. In like manner when we compare the trunk of every vein with the trunk of the correſponding artery, the con-

nection of both these trunks forms the centre of a quadruple ramification, in every respect similar to that of the heart. In fact the blood, which flows constantly through the artery, withdraws by a diverging, and returns by a converging ramification into the trunk of the vein, which I consider as forming a centre with the adjacent artery. The blood, in its course, removes from this centre by a diverging, and returns into this artery by a converging ramification. The heart may be considered as the point of union between the largest vein and the largest artery, connected together by an assemblage of muscles, which constitute what we call the heart. By analysing all the points of resemblance in this comparison, I perceive that the body is formed and receives its full growth from the prolongation and connection of all the blood vessels, and the continual consumption of the blood, which promotes the increase of all the other parts of the body: thus every thing that does not compose a part of the circulation, is the result of it, and it is the circulation of the blood which is the principle of the physical growth of man. By a similar analogy, every thing which belongs to man, and which does not constitute a part of the circulation of labour, is the effect of that circulation. I do not confine this circumstance to the wealth and possessions of man exclusively, but to every thing that distinguish him from the uncultivated savage; his education, his moral and intellectual constitution, and his cultivated existence, are the effects of the labour which has been appropriated to his benefit from his early infancy. If we retrench by reflection from the physical existence of man all the gradual accessions to his growth and strength which have been derived from the circulation of the blood, nothing will be left but the mere germ of life. In the same manner, if we abstract in thought every improvement which mankind have derived from the circulation of labour, nothing will be left but a few scattered savages in the woods. It is thus that the circulation of the blood constitutes the physical existence of man, as the circulation of labour forms his cultivated existence; and these two circulations take place in a similar manner. When there is a great demand for merchandise, its circulation becomes more rapid; and, in proportion as it issues from the warehouse with a greater degree of dispatch, the vacancy which it causes attracts the produce of labour, which flows in that direction with more than usual swiftness, and by communicating with every source of labour, augments the activity of every branch of business. When, on the contrary, the demand is lessened, the circulation of merchandise is retarded, and a stagnation of business ensues, which stops the course of the produce of labour, and, by a necessary effect, enfeebles the activity which was the generating cause of its prior improvement. Hence it appears that want produces energy, and energy gives birth to labour. In proportion as the circulation of labour and merchandise is either quickened or arrested in its course, the circulation of money undergoes the same variations. It is clear, therefore, that circulation depends equally on want and on activity. We have now seen that every consumer forms a number of points where the diverging course of money terminates with the converging ramification. Were there a perfect equilibrium between the demand for merchandise and the activity which brings it into circulation, or if the expence of labour should be commensurate with its production, the systems of ramification would then be equal, and would regularly terminate at the same points. But should an individual, for example, instead of consuming all the product of his labour, reserve a part of the money which comes round to him, for the purpose of creating productive labour, he will form a new source of revenue for himself; the money which he employs will

give riſe to a freſh circulation of labour, and inſtead of being a remote veſſel, it will then form a trunk of circulation. In the ſame manner, if a great number of conſumers proceed in ſimilar undertakings, the circulation of labour will become proportionably extenſive, and proceed in the ſame direction with a correſponding circulation of money. By a neceſſary conſequence, the ſyſtem of the circulation of merchandiſe muſt be prolonged in a ſimilar manner, in order to produce a coincidence of circulation among the remoteſt branches, that is, that labour and merchandiſe may be equally extenſive in their effects and operations, and, by a neceſſary conſequence, may be attended with a correſponding circulation of money. In like manner, in proportion as the arteries project new branches, the correſponding veins produce the ſame effect, and as the ramification of the aorta increaſes, the vena cava is affected in the ſame manner. The impulſe given to the blood does not confine itſelf to the projection of new branches in the ſyſtem of the veins and arteries only, but likewiſe in the glands, the bowels, and all the other parts which it nouriſhes in the ſame proportion, and produces the correſponding growth of the whole body. It is in the ſame manner that induſtry begins, by enlarging the four different courſes of circulation; and afterward, in a natural order, every ſource of revenue, and the cultivated or laboured exiſtence of man, experiences a ſimilar advancement in its growth. Money is the only thing which does not increaſe in the ſame proportion. If the ſyſtem of channels in which it circulates ſhould increaſe, its quantity diminiſhes in each of them according to the ſame proportion. It is from the produce of the mines that this vehicle of circulation is ſwelled in its amount, and repairs whatever it loſes by friction in paſſing from hand to hand. There is this difference between the circulation of money and that of labour, that labour undergoes only two circulations, a converging, and a diverging one: one part is then conſumed, and the other attaches itſelf to the different ſources of capital or income. Theſe ſources inceſſantly reproduce it, but the ſame money always ſerves its purpoſe, and after having finiſhed one revolution, it begins immediately to reſume another. It is evident that money is nothing more than the inſtrument or medium of the circulation of labour. It is a common ſaying, that money can do every thing, that it revives induſtry and labour. Money is to induſtry, what the pencil is to the painter, the chiſel to the ſculptor, and the pen to the writer; that is, inſtruments which they cannot do without, and which they muſt firſt procure before they reſort to their labours. Every accumulation of labour, in like manner, commences with money; he who has nothing, muſt firſt procure money to begin with, as a pen muſt be provided by him who deſires to write. But money is ſtill leſs neceſſary than the inſtruments I have juſt mentioned, as it can be ſupplied in a great meaſure by paper credit. The human body, in its youth, makes a rapid progreſs in its growth; that is to ſay, the ſyſtem of circulation continually projects new branches, and the different channels of communication increaſe in an equal degree. But a period approaches in which they can increaſe no more; the blood ſuperabounds, and its maſs augments every day. All the parts of the body are in a ſort of gradual ſwelling, which forms all the grace and beauty of a young perſon. It is then the ſpring of life, the ſeaſon of love and pleaſure; it is then that the power of circulation directs itſelf toward the organs which Nature deſtines to receive this ſuperb abundance for the propagation of the ſpecies; it is then that man feels that reſtleſſneſs and impulſe which direct him toward reproduction. After this delightful age, the nouriſhment which the blood conveys to the different parts of the body, make them gradually harder and more

inflexible. The mutual play of all theſe parts becomes embarraſſed in its motions, the circulation is interrupted, and the remoter arteries are obſtructed. This difficulty of circulation in the diſtant branches, produces wrinkles in the ſkin, which are multiplied and furrowed at the approach of old age: in a ſhort time, the blood, being unable to find its way in the different glands which are obſtructed, accumulates thoſe heterogeneous principles which occaſion infirmities, diſeaſes, and death. It is thus that the cauſe which produced the growth of the body, is the ſame that brings on its decay and diſſolution, when it has arrived at a certain point of its natural magnitude. The ſame circumſtance takes place in the general ſyſtem of labour. When a nation commences its career, every ſource of income is to be produced; that is, its circulating communications are not as yet in exiſtence. If the nation ſhould be active and energetic, the growth of capital is rapid and extenſive, becauſe individuals conſume little, and accumulate the ſurplus product of their induſtry. The relative produce of capital being then abundant, every individual feels the ſtrongeſt inducement to improve his funds, and the circulation of labour proceeds with wonderful rapidity, like the quick progreſs and growth of the human body in its youth. In proportion to the accumulation of the ſurplus of labour, every ſource of revenue is fully ſupplied, and the relative produce decreaſes; the influx of money is more abundant, and its augmentation is felt in every branch of trade. But as every country is ſurrounded by others, which make contrary efforts to retard its progreſs, a period arrives when the ſurplus of capital determines a number of individuals to place it more advantageouſly in new and diſtant countries, where they form colonies, and then an active nation reproduces others of the ſame deſcription. But, as we have remarked before, the ſuperfluity of wealth in the mother-country is conſtantly enlarging itſelf, the neceſſity or the deſire of accumulating diminiſhes proportionably, and the deſire of expence takes its place. On this occaſion the emulation of expenditure prevents the further extenſion of the emulation of labour: not only the ſyſtem of circulation is retarded, but even the ſource of income becomes leſs productive, the different branches of labour are diminiſhed, the activity of the nation becomes relaxed and feeble, and the laboured or cultivated exiſtence of man experiences the ſymptoms of decay. The general ſtock of knowledge becomes retrograde, in oppoſition to the ſtill increaſing progreſs of the human mind, and preſents no ſpectacle but a maſs of ancient prejudices and errors, which give riſe to vanity without elevation of ſoul, to pride and grandeur without riches, to inactivity and general wretchedneſs. Such are the ſymptoms of the decrepitude and old age of nations, conſidered relatively to each other, and the decrepitude of families in one and the ſame ſtate. Wars, revolutions, and miſery, are the natural term of their exiſtence, and, at the ſame time, the principle of their revival. Energetic nations which are aggrandized by war, are ſubject to the ſame period of declenſion; war accumulates riches by plunder, and induſtry, by labour and activity. But in both caſes, the ſummit of proſperity is the firſt period of decay. The ſame effects are produced by the emulation of grandeur and expence: ſloth and vanity are ſubſtituted in the place of courage.

I ſhall now ſum up in a few words what I have ſaid on the ſubject of circulation. 1. Circulation is always formed of two contrary currents; that of labour, and that of money, the value of which is uniformly equal to that of the correſponding merchandiſe, and which ſerves as a ſtandard for its price. 2. Money may be repreſented by paper credit, which is circulated in its room; and the quantity of this paper which may be em-

ployed increaſes in proportion with the general ſtate of credit, that is, of good faith and probity in mercantile tranſactions. 3. The total maſs of the wealth of the mercantile world has therefore a value equal to the ſum total of the paper money and ſpecie which is in circulation. 4. The circulation of labour and of money is the effect of the energy of man, which human neceſſities gives riſe to. 5. Money is only the inſtrument of circulation. 6. Money, by its nature, tends to find its level in the commercial world. 7. This general level is raiſed in proportion to the produce of the mines, and the extent of general credit, and lowers in proportion to the extent of the ramification of labour. 8. This level has a conſtant fluctuation between different countries on account of the natural and artificial obſtacles to which the removal and exportation of ſpecie is liable. 9. It is likewiſe ſubject to fluctuations from the flux and reflux of the emulation of labour, and the emulation of expence, which vary conſiderably in different nations. The emulation of labour accumulates wealth from capital, and the emulation of expence diminiſhes the former accumulation. 10. This fluctuation of the level of money is the barometer of the increaſe and decreaſe of wealth in a ſtate. 11. Commerce, in a general ſenſe, means the circulation of the total maſs of labour: it collects together in its centre the labour of all the branches which produced it, and afterward diſperſes it for general conſumption: in the end it receives the pecuniary value of every article of conſumption, and diſtributes it among the different departments of productive labour.

An eaſy METHOD *of* CHURNING BUTTER. *By Cit.* Jumilhac, *Preſident of the Society of Agriculture, for the Department of Seine and Oiſe.*

[From Sonini's Bibliotheque Phyſ. Oeconomique, No. 1.]

TO increaſe the powers of man, is one of the attributes of mechanics, but in order that a mechanical contrivance may be truly uſeful, it is requiſite that it ſhould be ſimple and cheap. That which I now offer to the ſociety, appears to me to unite theſe two advantages.

It is univerſally known, that in great heats and extremely cold weather it is difficult to churn butter. The labour of ſeveral perſons ſucceſſively, is often applied without any ſucceſs, to procure the perfect coagulation of the cream. In vain, during the rigour of winter, the cream is placed by the fire, or mixed with milk quite freſh and yet warm; and it is with as little ſucceſs, that in ſummer the churn-ſtaff is occaſionally immerſed in cold water. All theſe means, though of value, are inſufficient, if not ſeconded by celerity of motion in the act of churning.

Surpriſed at the ſlowneſs with which butter is formed, eſpecially in winter, and after having continued the operation for five hours and a half, I thought the difficulty aroſe from the awkwardneſs and conſtraint of the arm that holds the churn-ſtaff; both which are increaſed in proportion as the cream becomes thicker, it being then neceſſary to make a greater exertion to raiſe and depreſs the churn-ſtaff. This obſervation is ſo true, that a perſon who has churned butter for half an hour at the beginning, without experiencing any fatigue, cannot perform the ſame work for the ſpace of ten minutes after the cream has become thick, and offers more reſiſtance.

Convinced that every interruption, or even diminution, of ſpeed, are highly injurious to the butyraceous coagulation, I thought that, without altering either the churn or churn-ſtaff, I could adopt a method which is already uſed in ſeveral other operations. Some members of the ſociety think they have already ſeen this application to the churn-ſtaff, but not

finding it mentioned in any book, I have preſumed that the ſociety will not object to make it ſufficiently public, in order that it may be adopted in all dairies.

Nothing more is required than to fix to one of the beams of the cieling, a pole, three yards long, ſupported at the diſtance of two feet by a croſs piece, and itſelf faſtened at the end by two blocks or cleats nailed to the timbers. This pole may be about three inches or more in diameter at the upper part, and half that thickneſs at the lower or moveable end. At the end of the pole is tied a ſtrong cord, which is paſſed through a hole made near the top of the churn-ſtaff, which is ſo faſtened and placed, that it continues ſuſpended in the middle of the churn.

When the churn-ſtaff thus fitted up is preſſed downward, it enters eaſily into the cream; but the pole, acting as a lever by its elaſticity, raiſes it immediately: this eaſes the arms, for the moment of the greateſt exertion is when you are obliged to raiſe them as high as the forehead to diſengage the churn-ſtaff, and immediately force it down again.

Even if this method contributed only to diminiſh the principal part of the awkwardneſs and conſtraint, it would be a great advantage: but I ſhould think this trifling and incomplete if the contraction of the arm was not remedied. After having conſidered what powers are jointly employed to produce the effect, I concluded that the poſition of the arm ought not to be neglected during this long operation; and ſeeking by triale for the leaſt painful, I determined in favour of that in which the fore arm is employed in the whole motion.

I therefore perforated the handle of the churn-ſtaff about twelve inches below the hole through which the cord paſſes that ſuſpends it to the pole, and I there faſtened two ſmall handles of wood, of about two centimetres each, which are faſtened together by an iron pin; ſo that the handle of the churn-ſtaff reſembles a croſs. The perſon who churns places his hands on the two handles, and by a ſimple preſſure, which is ſo light, that two fingers are ſufficient to force the churn-ſtaff to the bottom of the churn, he may churn for two hours without experiencing any real fatigue; for the motion of the elevation which alone demands the greateſt exertion, is performed by the lever of the pole.

I made uſe of alder wood for the pole, as one of the moſt elaſtic and leaſt likely to warp.

We ſee from this deſcription, how little it coſts to eſtabliſh the mechanical help, which only conſiſts of a pole of alder-wood of three yards long, and two ſmall wooden handles adapted to the churn ſtaff; and how greatly it aſſiſts and increaſes the power of the perſon who churns, by obviating the moſt painful movement, by placing the hands naturally, ſo as to require the motion of the fore arm only, which is evidently the leaſt fatiguing.

I am convinced, by the reſult of conſtant practice, that one third of the time is ſaved which is uſually employed in making butter.

PRESERVATION OF CORN.

TO preſerve rye, and ſecure it from inſects and rats, it has been diſcovered that nothing more is neceſſary than not to winnow it after being thraſhed, but to ſtow it in the granaries mixed with the chaff. In this ſtate it will keep three or four years without experiencing the ſmalleſt alteration, and even without the neceſſity of being turned to preſerve it from humidity and fermentation. Care muſt, however, be taken not to bring it into the barn till thoroughly dry. To prevent rats and mice from entering into the barn or granary, put ſome wild vine or hedge plant upon the heaps; the ſmell of this wood is ſo offenſive to theſe animals, that they will not approach it. The paſſage of moles may be prevented by placing pieces of the ſame ſhrub in their way.

On a new Kind of PAINTING *with the* SERUM *or* WATERY PART *of the* BLOOD. *By* F. Carbonel, M. D. *of* Barcelona.

THE advantages and utility of painting have at all times excited the emulation of profeſſors and of artiſts. The progreſs of this art, which imitates nature, has fortunately correſponded to their wiſhes; but its advancement would certainly have been more rapid if artiſts had been ſooner made acquainted with the new chymiſtry. This aſſertion is proved by the preſent diſcovery.

The neceſſity of painting ſurfaces of different kinds, their various ſituations, and the complex circumſtances which attend the application of colours, have given riſe to the different kinds of painting which are known; ſuch as painting in freſco, painting in ſize, oil-painting, painting with milk, painting on porcelain, painting with wax, painting on glaſs, &c.

The journey of the king of Spain to Barcelona, and the preparation of the edifices deſtined for the uſe of their majeſties, afforded me an opportunity of ſolving a new problem in regard to this art. It was neceſſary to diſcover ſome kind of painting of the common colour of ſtone which might be able to reſiſt rain, which ſhould be unalterable in the ſun, eaſy to be applied on wood, and which ſhould dry ſoon and exhale no bad odour; in a word, a painting equally durable with that in ſize, and which ſhould have the property of being able to withſtand the inclemency of the weather. The ſolubility of gelatin in water, the bad ſmell of oil, the weak adheſion of milk of lime to wood, and its ready alteration by heat, made me ſenſible that it would be impoſſible to have recourſe to any of the known vehicles for ſecuring the colouring matters. After ſome examination I found that albumen * was the only ſubſtance which could anſwer the required conditions, on account of its inſolubility in water, and the conſiſtence it acquires by combining with calcareous earths. This ſubſtance, prepared by the vital power in the animal organs, is found almoſt pure in the white of an egg or albumen, and is found in combination in different animal ſubſtances. But the great viſcidity of the white of an egg, the clots which are formed by its combination with lime, and particularly its dearneſs, made me give up all idea of employing it for painting a whole edifice.

I then conceived that the ſerum of blood, the principal part of which conſiſts of albumen, would be attended with all the advantages of white of egg for the propoſed end, without having any of its inconveniences. Chymical analyſis of animal ſubſtances indeed, ſhows that the ſerum of blood, commonly called the water of the blood, or, improperly, the lymph of the blood, is a kind of animal mucilage compoſed of albuminous or gelatinous ſubſtances in different proportions, diſſolved in an indeterminate quantity of water, conſtantly united to pure ſoda, which reduces the albuminous ſubſtance to an almoſt ſaponaceous ſtate. There is found alſo in the ſerum phoſphate of ſoda, of lime, and of ammonia. But theſe ſaline ſubſtances are not eſſential to this combination, ſince they not only may vary in their proportions, but be wanting either in whole or in part; and even unite in the ſerum to other ſalts, ſuch as the muriate of potaſh, the phoſphate of magneſia, &c. without the albuminous, alkaline, or gelatinous ſubſtance of the ſerum being changed, or exhibiting different characteriſtic properties.

This doctrine, received by all the

* This painting was much wanted for the bridge which joins the *hotel de la Douane* to the palace of the captain-general, as no other kind could be employed for fear of injuring the queen's health.

celebrated modern chymiſts, induced me to think that the albuminous ſubſtance of ſerum, modified by its combination with gelatin and ſoda, ought to form with calcareous earth a compoſition which would retain no more of that viſcidity and tenacity aſſumed by the mixture of the white of an egg and lime, than what might be neceſſary for anſwering the propoſed end.

Theſe reaſons, and the low price of this liquid in large cities, ſoon induced me to try the effects of the ſerum of blood with pulverized quicklime; and I found, with much ſatisfaction, that my firſt trials correſponded in every reſpect to the hopes I had conceived.

Practice and Application of the new Kind of Painting.

The preparation of this new kind of paint is eaſy, and requires very little time. Nothing is neceſſary but to pulverize the lime, and to dilute it in the ſerum of blood until it forms a liquid of ſufficient thickneſs for painting; which is then to be applied in the uſual manner. The colour which this compoſition acquires is whitiſh, and more or leſs ſhining, according to the purity of the ſerum and the whiteneſs of the lime. This earth may be employed either in the ſtate of quick or cauſtic lime reduced to powder, or well ſlaked with a ſmall quantity of water to leſſen the adheſion of its integrant parts. It muſt then be reduced to a fine powder, and be ſifted through a cloſe ſieve. If kept for ſome days, it is neceſſary to preſerve it in a cloſe tub or earthen veſſel, to prevent its combination with the carbonic acid and water of the atmoſphere. The ſerum is ſeparated from the curdled blood by decantation: but care muſt be taken to ſhake the matter as little as poſſible, and to ſuffer it each time to remain at reſt.

In this compoſition two things only are to be obſerved: the firſt is, that ſerum being a fluid highly ſuſceptible of corruption, it muſt be employed the ſame day it is ſeparated; or at furtheſt the day following, provided it be kept in a cool place ſheltered from the contact of the air, eſpecially during the ſummer, when it alters much more eaſily.

In caſe of doubt, inſpection of the fluid alone may ſerve to determine its quality; for the ſigns of its fermentation are very evident. This obſervation is applicable alſo to the colouring liquor, but in a leſs degree. It follows from this circumſtance, that the veſſels which have been uſed for containing, preparing, or applying paint made with ſerum ought be waſhed every day. The ſecond precaution to be taken is, that as the reaction of the ſerum and lime increaſes in the courſe of time, as well as the denſity of the mixture, in order that it may be preſerved in the neceſſary ſtate of fluidity, or to diminiſh or increaſe it according to the nature of the ſubſtances to be painted and the number of ſtrata to be applied, another veſſel filled with ſerum muſt be provided, to give to the colouring liquor the neceſſary fluidity. It thence follows that the mixture muſt be prepared as it is uſed.

Having aſſured myſelf of the ſucceſsful and conſtant effects of this kind of painting, I tried to mix it with different colouring ſubſtances, to render the application of the invention more general.

The well known reaction of animal ſubſtances and of lime on the metallic oxides, and particularly on thoſe in which oxygen is united to the metal with little force, made me ſuſpect an alteration of ſome colours when mixed with this liquid; an alteration naturally produced by the ſeparation of a part of the oxygen from the metallic oxides. On the other hand, the analogy which coloured chalks have with calcareous earth, induced me to believe that their combination would be attended with the happieſt reſult. The oxides of lead, copper, and arſenic, indeed, undergo a ſingular alteration in their reſpective colours, when they are united with ſerum and calcareous earth: but this is not the caſe with

cobalt green; which on that account appears to me to be very proper for being uſed as a colouring matter in this new kind of painting. Thoſe earths, however, called red, green, black, or yellow, which are of an argillo-calcareous nature, when mixed with theſe ſubſtances, may furniſh different agreeable colours of a durability equal to the blueiſh colour produced merely by the mixture of lime and of ſerum.

I have however remarked, that the durability of this painting is conſiderably altered when there is mixed with it a very large quantity of colouring earth, ſuch as the black earth uſed for painting an iron colour, or the repreſentation of white marble with black ſpots. To remedy this inconvenience, nothing will be neceſſary but to mix a little white of an egg with the ſerum before it is united with the lime or the black earth. I muſt here add, that wood painted in this manner may be poliſhed, and made to acquire a certain degree of luſtre. In this caſe I have obſerved that freſh ſpermaceti may be ſubſtituted with advantage for the tallow or oil in which the rags are employed for rubbing wood before it is poliſhed are commonly dipped. This kind of paint may be applied alſo with the ſame ſucceſs to earthen ware, lead, iron, cut-ſtone, &c.

The circumſtances which induced me to employ this new kind of painting, obliged me to make an extenſive uſe of it, without allowing me time to carry my operations any further. More than 300 arrobes * of ſerum were conſumed in the courſe of a few days. In this manner we were able to paint not only the paſſage and bridge of the king's palace, but alſo the windows and doors of the ſame edifice, thoſe of the magnificent building of the Exchange, the *Place de Taureau*, and many private houſes. The happy effects it produced, when expoſed to the eyes of the public, are a ſufficient proof that practice here perfectly correſponds with theory.

It is hardly neceſſary to obſerve, that the ſurfaces to be painted muſt be ſmooth; that the wood muſt be covered with a ſtratum of plaſter; and that this painting muſt not be applied over painting with oil or with turpentine, becauſe the heat would make it crack.

I propoſe to continue the ſmall number of trials I have already made, to render the uſe of my diſcovery more general. The following is the reſult of thoſe which I have hitherto been able to attempt.

In conſequence of the viſcidity, adheſion, and ſpeedy deſiccation of this compoſition, it may be employed in the ſame manner as bitumen, to cement with great ſolidity broken articles of every kind. In this caſe it oppoſes a ſtrong reſiſtance to the action of fire, water, many of the gaſes, and to vapour.

As ſerum contains a large quantity of albuminous matter, having myſelf ſeparated from it nearly half its weight, it may be employed with advantage for clarifying ſugar, wine, and other ſubſtances, in a more economical manner than by the white of an egg.

This new compoſition may be employed alſo for covering the ſurface of damp walls intended to be painted in oil colours; taking care, however, to cover it with a coating of plaſter and glue, to prevent its reaction on the colouring parts of the painting.

The hardneſs of this ſubſtance, and its ſuſceptibility of receiving a poliſh, induce me to believe that it might be employed on ſtucco, and for imitating it on walls and ceilings.

It may be uſed alſo for uniting water-conduits, and for cementing ſtones of all dimenſions, and eſpecially thoſe which are put into wood caiſſons for building under water.

It appears from different works, that the ancients had conceived the idea of employing blood in the compoſition of their cements and mortar; but the uſe of it in painting was before unknown. Beſides, there was too great

* An arrobe weighs twenty-five or twenty-ſix pounds.

a diſtance between this uſe of blood and that of ſerum freed from the fibrous part and the colouring matter, to admit of any doubt that the principle of my diſcovery is entirely my own.

It follows from what has been here ſaid, that this new kind of painting may be added to thoſe already known, and that it may be called painting *in ſerum*; that it is as eaſily applied as prepared; that the elements of it are common, and of little value; and that it unites in it all the advantages of painting in oil and in diſtemper, without having any of their inconveniences.

A DESCRIPTION OF THE ISLAND OF CEYLON.

Concluded from Page 253.

THE king of Candy's dominions, which occupy the greater part of the interior, are completely cut off on all ſides from thoſe of the Europeans by almoſt impenetrable woods and mountains. The paſſes which lead through theſe to the coaſts are extremely ſteep and difficult, and ſcarcely known even by the natives themſelves. As ſoon as we advance from ten to twenty miles from the coaſts, a country preſents itſelf greatly differing from the ſeacoaſt both in ſoil, climate, and appearance. After aſcending the mountains and paſſing the woods, we find ourſelves in the midſt of a country not advanced many ſtages beyond the firſt ſtate of improvement, and which we are aſtoniſhed to find in the neighbourhood of the highly cultivated fields which ſurround Columbo. As we advance toward the centre of the iſland, the country gradually riſes, and the woods and mountains which ſeparate the ſeveral parts of the country become more ſteep and impervious.

It is in the midſt of theſe faſtneſſes that the native prince ſtill preſerves thoſe remains of territory and power which have been left him by ſucceſſive invaders. His dominions are now much reduced in ſize; for beſide the whole of the ſeacoaſts which were of any value, the Dutch, in their various attacks during the laſt century, have contrived to get into their power every tract from which they could derive either emolument or ſecurity. The provinces which ſtill remain to him are Nourecalava and Hotcourly toward the north and northweſt; while Matuly, comprehending the diſtricts of Bintana, Velas, and Panoa, with a few others, occupies thoſe parts more to the eaſtward. To the ſouth-eaſt lies Ouvah, a province of ſome note, and giving the king one of his titles. The weſtern parts are chiefly included in the provinces of Cotemal and Hotteracorley. Theſe different provinces are ſubdivided into corles or diſtricts, and entirely belong to the native prince. It is needleſs to recount the names of thoſe diviſions which ſtretch toward the ſeacoaſt, and are now chiefly in our poſſeſſion.

In the higheſt and moſt centrical part of the native king's dominions lie the corles or counties of Oudanour and Tatanour, in which are ſituate the two principal cities. Theſe counties take the preeminence of all the reſt, and are both better cultivated, and more populous than any of the other diſtricts, and are diſtinguiſhed by the general name of Condé Udda; *condé* or *candé* in the native language ſignifying a mountain, and *udda* the greateſt or higheſt.

This province of Condé Udda is even more inacceſſible than the others, and forms as it were a ſeparate kingdom of itſelf. On every ſide it is ſurrounded by lofty mountains covered with wood, and the paths by which it is entered ſeem little more than the tracts of wild beaſts. Guards are ſtationed all around to prevent both entrance and eſcape; for defence they might ſeem entirely ſuperfluous, did we not recollect that the perſeverance

of the Dutch overcame all theſe obſtacles, and forced a way into the very centre of this natural fortification.

In the diſtrict of Tattanour ſtands the city of Candy, the royal reſidence and the capital of the native prince's dominions. It is ſituate in the midſt of loſty and ſteep hills covered with thick jungle, about 70 miles E by N of Columbo, and 100 SSW of Trincomale, in lat. 7° 16′ N, and lon. 80° 47′ E. The narrow and difficult paſſes by which it is approached are interſected with thick hedges of thorn; and hedges of the ſame ſort are drawn round the hills in the vicinity of Candy like lines of circumvallation. Through them the only paſſage is by gates of the ſame thorny materials, ſo contrived as to be drawn up and let down by ropes. When the Candians are obliged to retreat within theſe barriers, they cut the ropes, and then it is impoſſible to force a paſſage, except by burning down the gates, which from their green ſtate, and the conſtant annoyance of the enemy ſheltered behind them, would prove an enterpriſe of time and difficulty. Theſe hedge-rows form the chief fortifications of Candy. The Malivagonga alſo nearly ſurrounds the hill on which it ſtands: the river is here broad, rocky, and rapid; a very ſtrict guard is kept on it, and every one who paſſes or repaſſes is cloſely watched and examined.

The city itſelf is a poor miſerable-looking place, ſurrounded by a mud wall of no ſtrength whatever. It has been ſeveral times burnt by Europeans, and was once deſerted by the king, who retired to a more inacceſſible part of his dominions. It is upon occaſion of the embaſſy of general Macdowal, in 1800, that any information concerning the preſent ſtate of Candy has been obtained; and even then it could be little more than gueſſed at, as the ambaſſador and his ſuite were admitted only by torch-light, and always retired before the break of day. From what could then be obſerved, the city conſiſts of a long ſtraggling ſtreet built on the declivity of a hill; the houſes are mean and low, but with their foundations raiſed in ſuch a manner above the level of the ſtreet that they appear quite loſty to paſſengers. The reaſon of this extraordinary taſte is to enable the king to hold his aſſemblies of the people and to have his elephant and buffalo-fights in the ſtreet, without interfering with the houſes. When the king paſſes along the ſtreet, none of the inhabitants are allowed to appear before their houſes, or the paths on a level with them, as that would be attended with the heinous indecorum of placing a ſubject higher than the prince deſcended of the ſun.

At the upper end of this ſtreet, ſtands the palace, a poor manſion for the abode of a king. It is ſurrounded with high ſtone walls, and conſiſts of two ſquares, one within the other. In the inner of theſe are the royal apartments, and it is there that the court is held and audiences given. The exterior of the palace and the reſt of the city could be but very partially obſerved by thoſe who attended general Macdowal, owing to the preſſure of the crowd, and the dazzling geare of the torches.

The next city in point of importance to Candy is Digliggy Neur, which ſtands to the eaſtward of the capital about twelve miles, and in the direction of our fort of Batacolo. The diſtrict around Digliggy Neur is ſtill more wild, barren, and impenetrable than that which ſurrounds Candy. It is on this very account that it has been choſen at times as a royal reſidence: at one period, when the king was driven out of Candy, and his capital burnt, he found here a retreat to which no European army has even been able to penetrate. A few villages are ſcattered among the ſurrounding hills; and in thoſe places where the woods leave ſome clear ſpace, the ſoil though barren produces rice.

About ſeven miles ſouth of Candy is the town of Nilemby Neur, which has alſo at times afforded a retreat to

the king: he has here a palace and ſtorehouſes. The remains of ſeveral other towns are found in various parts of the country. On the road from Candy to Trincomale ſtood the town of Alatty Neur, where the king kept ſtores of grain and other proviſions. This however, as well as many other towns, was burnt to the ground by the Portugueſe; and nothing is now left but the remains of ſome temples and pagodas to teſtify that ſuch places ever were in exiſtence.

The ruins of ſome towns, which appear to have been both larger and better built than thoſe hitherto deſcribed, prove that the kingdom of the Candians was once in a more flouriſhing condition, and gradually tending by the natural courſe of things to civilization and opulence, when the invaſion of Europeans deprived them of all thoſe means by which they could have acceſs to foreign nations, and an opportunity of importing either arts or manners into their own. In the northern part of the kingdom lies the province of Noure Calava, where the ruins of the once famous and ſplendid city of Anurodgburro are ſtill diſcovered. It ſtands almoſt at the northern extremity of the Candian dominions, and borders on the province of Jafnapatam. In former ages this was the reſidence of the kings of Ceylon; and has long been the place of their burial. Owing to its being at a diſtance from Candy, and the terrors of a barbarous court, it is much frequented by prieſts and other Cingleſe, who come here to pay devotion to their ſaints. It was here that the ſtately temples and pagodas of the Ceyloneſe worſhip formerly ſtood, as appears by the maſſy pillars and hewn ſtones which ſtill remain. The Portugueſe, however, made themſelves maſters of the town, and found in it more objects for their ravages than they had hitherto met with in the other parts of the iſland. They pulled down without remorſe the religious edifices with which it was adorned, and tranſported the choiceſt of the materials to fortify Columbo and the other towns which they erected on the ſeacoaſts. This act of ſacrilege tended more than any other thing to alienate the minds of the natives; and the Ceyloneſe ſtill record it with horror.

The whole of the king's country, with the exception of the plains around Anurodgburro, preſent a conſtant interchange of ſteep mountains and low vallies. The exceſſive thickneſs of the woods, which cover by far the greateſt portion of the country, cauſes heavy fogs and unwholeſome damps to prevail. Every evening the fogs fall with the cloſe of day, and are not again diſſipated till the ſun has acquired great power. The vallies are in general marſhy, full of ſprings, and excellently adapted for the cultivation of rice and rearing of cattle. Theſe advantages, however, are greatly counteracted by the unhealthineſs of the climate in theſe parts after the rainy ſeaſon. The principal difference between the climate of the interior and that of the coaſts, is occaſioned by the ſtagnation of the atmoſphere in the former. The depth of the vallies and the thickneſs of the woods conſpire to prevent the free circulation of air; and hence the night is conſtantly attended with exceſſive cold damps, which are ſucceeded by days equally noxious from their hot and ſultry vapours.

The country of Candy can never receive any improvement from internal navigation. Several large rivers indeed interſect it; but theſe during the rainy ſeaſon are rendered ſo rapid and impetuous by the torrents which fall into them from the ſurrounding hills, that no boat can venture upon them; while in the oppoſite ſeaſon they are almoſt completely dried up. The Malivagonga, which is the largeſt of theſe rivers, riſes at the foot of Adam's Peak, a high mountain to the ſouthweſt of Candy, and taking a northeaſt direction, nearly ſurrounds the capital, and at length falls into the ſea at Trincomale. The Muli-

vaddy, the next principal river, takes its riſe at a ſmall diſtance from the other, and runs toward the weſt coaſt. There are a variety of other rivers, which riſe from the hills in various parts of the country: although theſe be not navigable, yet if properly attended to, they might be employed to the greateſt advantage in fertilizing the country.

The rainy ſeaſons vary in different parts of the interior. The ſouthweſt quarter is ſubject to the influence of the weſtern monſoons, while the northeaſt is but ſlightly touched by thoſe from the oppoſite quarter. The high range of mountains which runs acroſs the country of Candy, ſeems to divide the iſland into two different climates: it has been a continued drought on one ſide of them for years, while it has rained on the other without intermiſſion. The eaſtern parts are by no means ſo ſubject to the influence of the monſoons as thoſe to the weſt, and are conſequently much leſs deluged with rains. The ſeaſons in the mountains of the interior are regulated by different laws, and do not exactly correſpond to either of the monſoons. Among them it rains inceſſantly during the months of March and April, at which period it is dry in the lowlands.

The government of Candy is an abſolute deſpotiſm; yet, by the fundamental laws of the country, the monarchy is completely elective, and the people conſider themſelves at liberty to elect either a native or foreigner, though nowiſe connected with the royal blood. The throne, however, has in general been, for many ages, poſſeſſed by the ancient Candian royal family.

The king of Candy affects to be the greateſt prince in the world; and he is the only prince in India, or, as the Candians ſay, in the whole world, who wears a crown. He yields to no eaſtern prince in the number and extravagance of his titles, ſeveral of which were evidently invented by the Portugueſe and Dutch, who were extremely liberal in repaying him with theſe for any corner of his dominions which they found it convenient to appropriate to their own uſe. His Candian majeſty is uſually deſigned emperor of Ceylon, king of Candy and Jafnapatam, prince deſcended from the Golden Sun, whoſe kingdom and city of Candy is higher than any other, and before whom all others muſt fall proſtrate; prince of Ouva, duke over the ſeven provinces and corles on the eaſt, marquis of Duranuro and the four corles, lord of Columbo and Galle, lord of the ſeaports of Nigumbo, Caltura, and Matura, to whom the iſland of Manaar and Calpenteen belong; lord of the fiſhery of pearls, to whom all precious ſtones belong; he before whom elephants bow: theſe, with a long ſtring of others of the ſame ſort, are always added to his majeſty's addreſs.

Theſe lofty titles are attended with correſpondent reverence on the part of his own ſubjects. No one dares approach him without proſtrating himſelf three ſeveral times before the throne, each time repeating a long ſtring of his majeſty's titles with the utmoſt fervour. No one even of the higheſt rank is allowed to cough, or ſpit in his preſence. Every one is ſilent before him, nor does any one even in a whiſper venture to addreſs another. The ſolemn gravity of his nobles when admitted into the royal preſence, altogether correſponds with the greatneſs of the occaſion. The chief Adigar, or prime miniſter, is the only perſon who is permitted to ſtand in the royal preſence; and even he is obliged to be ſome ſteps lower than his majeſty, as no one dares be on a level with him who is deſcended from the Sun, as all the kings of Ceylon are ſuppoſed to be. The buſineſs of ſtate is tranſacted between the king and the Adigar in low whiſpers, ſo as not to be overheard by any one preſent; and any meſſage from his majeſty to the others is conveyed in the ſame manner by the Adigar.

When the king appears in public,

he is always attended with what in the eyes of a Candian appears magnificence, although to an European it may ſeem ſcarcely deſerving that name. He ſeldom makes uſe of a horſe or elephant, but is generally carried in a palankeen. A number of his guards and perſons of the firſt rank always accompany him; while a profuſion of flags and ſtreamers of white calico or cloth, are carried before the proceſſion. In theſe are painted or wove of a red colour figures of the ſun, of elephants, tygers, dragons, and many other hideous creatures. His progreſs is always attended by a number of performers on various inſtruments, ſuch as drums of various ſizes, ſhrill and ſqualling clarionets, pipes, flagelets, a ſort of bagpipes, and pieces of braſs and iron jingled by way of triangles, which are ſounded and claſhed at once, without the ſmalleſt attention to time or harmony. But his moſt remarkable attendants are a ſet of people furniſhed with long whips of a peculiar kind, who keep running before the proceſſion with ſtrange geſtures like madmen, to clear the way, and announce the approach of the king. The whips are made of hemp, cova, graſs, or hair, and conſiſt of a thong or laſh from eight to twelve feet long without any handle.

The civil and military eſtabliſhment of Candy is adjuſted to the deſpotic form of its government, and promotion and appointment of all ſorts depend wholly on the pleaſure of the prince. The inſtitution of caſts, however, is preſerved inviolable, and officers of a certain rank muſt always be choſen out of a certain claſs. White men rank with the higheſt. The regular troops, or ſtanding army, which conſiſts of about twenty thouſand men, do duty in the interior, while the defence of the frontiers is entruſted to the adjoining inhabitants, who compoſe a ſort of militia, and are obliged to keep conſtant watch over the entrances into the country. The various officers under the king have various privileges according to their rank.

The higheſt officers of ſtate are the Adigars, or prime miniſters. They are two in number, and may be ſaid to ſhare all the power of the court between them. They are the ſupreme judges of the realm; all cauſes may be brought before them, and it is they who give final judgment. An appeal indeed lies from their ſentence to the king himſelf; but as they alone poſſeſs the royal ear, it is both difficult and dangerous to aſſert this privilege. The Adigars are poſſeſſed of all thoſe privileges and immunities which may be ſuppoſed to accompany their unlimited power; and in order to approach as nearly to royalty as poſſible, they have alſo their particular badge, which is allowed to no other perſon. Their peculiar diſtinction conſiſts in a certain number of officers attached to their train, who carry a ſort of ſtaves of a particular ſhape, and a ſeal of hard clay, which are conſidered as tokens of the Adigar's commiſſion, and when preſented along with any mandate never fail to procure immediate obedience.

The officers next in rank to the Adigars are the Diſſauvas. They are the governors of the corles or diſtricts, and are alſo the principal military commanders. Their buſineſs is to attend the king's perſon when required, to collect the revenues, and ſee that good order and ſtrict diſcipline be maintained in their commands. Theſe great officers generally reſide at court, and perſonally attend upon the king. They have therefore inferior officers under them, who act entirely by their orders, either in collecting the king's revenues, or in ſqueezing the people for the emolument of their patrons. Theſe deputy officers are known by the names of Roterauts, Vitanies, and Courlevidanies, and are reſident in the different provinces and diſtricts to which they are appointed. An inferior rank of officers to theſe is compoſed of Conganies, Aratjes, &c. who

fulfil the duties of conſtables and police officers.

This whole plan of government forms a regular ſyſtem of oppreſſion, which falls with the ſevereſt weight on the lower orders of the people. Few have the courage to appeal againſt the unjuſt extortions of the higher ranks, and fewer ſtill meet with any redreſs. Although the perſons of the peaſantry be in ſome meaſure protected, yet their property is completely at the mercy of the rapacious officers of the court. They have long ſince been ſtript of every thing valuable, and many of them truſt to the ſpontaneous fruits of their foreſts for a ſcanty ſubſiſtence, rather than cultivate fields whoſe produce muſt be ſhared with their oppreſſors.

The principal revenues of the king conſiſt of preſents or contributions brought him by the people, or rather irregularly enforced by his officers, two or three times a year. Theſe contributions conſiſt of money, precious ſtones, ivory, cloth, corn, fruit, honey, wax, arms, and other articles of their own manufacture, ſuch as ſpears, arrows, pikes, targets, talipot leaves, &c. Fear of the Europeans induces the king to practiſe the ſame policy as the dread of his rapacious officers produces among his ſubjects. He pretends on all occaſions to be very poor, although it is well known that his treaſury is well ſtored with various articles of great value.

The lower claſſes of the people, however, are not the only perſons who feel the burden of ſupplying the royal treaſury. Upon certain feſtivals, which he obſerves in great ſtate, all the Mahondrews and principal people are obliged to appear before him, and none muſt come empty-handed. Before they are admitted to the royal preſence, they depoſit their gifts at the palace gate, and are then received by the monarch according to the value of their offering. The *dackenie*, or gift, is always wrapt up in a white cloth, and carried on the head of him who preſents it, even were it no bigger than the ſize of a nut. A white cloth is particularly choſen, as this is the royal colour, and except on buſineſs belonging to the king, is never allowed to be employed.

Theſe ſtated periods of contribution, however, are not the only extortions practiſed on the Candian ſubjects. The moment in which the king's officers underſtand that any one is poſſeſſed of valuables, is the ſignal for demanding a ſhare for the royal treaſury; and artiſts are frequently employed by the king to make him arms and different works in ſilver and gold, all at their own expence.

According to the univerſal uſage of deſpots, who dare not venture to truſt their own ſubjects, the king always keep about his perſon a body of Malabars, Malays, and others who are not his own natural ſubjects, but many of them runaways from the Dutch. As theſe troops are entirely unconnected with the natives, and depend ſolely on his favour for protection and preferment, he places his chief confidence in them, and employs them as his conſtant body guard. Beſide this corps of foreign guards, who do perpetual duty at the palace, about eight thouſand of his regular troops and a number of the nobles are kept quartered in the neighbourhood ready to be aſſembled at a moment's notice. Theſe troops, though called regulars, have neither arms nor cloaths to entitle them to that appellation. They wear what dreſs they chooſe, and arm themſelves with any ſort of weapons they can procure; ſo that when aſſembled, they preſent merely a groteſque groupe of tatterdemalions. Their armour is altogether of a motley nature; ſpears, pikes, ſwords, targets, bows and arrows, matchlocks, with, perhaps, a thouſand fuſees or muſkets and bayonets.

The reſt of the military force, except on particular occaſions, lie ſcattered throughout the country. Their pay and ſubſiſtence conſiſts in a ſmall allowance of rice and ſalt, a piece of cloth annually given them for dreſs,

an exemption from taxes and all other ſervices, and a ſmall piece of ground to cultivate for their maintenance.

Diſtruſt and jealouſy, the conſtant attendants of arbitrary power, pervade the whole of the military ſyſtem. The commanders and other officers of the forces are never allowed to correſpond, or even to ſee each other, except when the public exigency requires them to be brought together; and it is the policy of the king to encourage them to watch and act as ſpies upon each other, to prevent combination among themſelves or any intercourſe with the Europeans. The laſt object ſeems indeed ſufficiently guarded againſt by the continued chain of poſts and watches eſtabliſhed around the whole outſkirts of his dominions. Every inhabitant of the borders is a ſentinel; and as many of them have their habitations placed on the tops of trees which overlook the whole country, it is altogether impoſſible to elude ſo many obſtacles, and get either out of the country or into it by ſtealth or againſt their conſent. Even in the interior of the Candian dominions the ſame jealous precautions are obſerved, and no one is permitted to paſs from one diſtrict to another without firſt being examined and producing his paſſport. Theſe precautions are ſtrictly enforced and completely ſerve the intended purpoſe: but it would be needleſs even in the moſt jealous prince to throw any more obſtacles in the way of communication and intercourſe, than is interpoſed by nature, eſpecially when we conſider that the king allows none of the woods to be cleared away, nor any roads to be made through his dominions. His apprehenſion of intruſion from ſtrangers, except when he is at war with the Europeans, is no better grounded; as even the native Cingleſe of the coaſts, are ſo poſſeſſed with an opinion of the fatality of the climate in the interior, that they approach it with terror.

The narrow paths which lead through the woods and mountains of the Candians, are indeed ſufficient for all the purpoſes of the natives, as they univerſally travel afoot. To ride a horſeback is a royal privilege; and a privilege ſeldom made uſe of by the monarch himſelf. There are indeed no horſes kept in the interior but thoſe belonging to his majeſty: and even the royal ſtud is in a very reduced ſtate, as it conſiſts merely of preſents from the European governments of the coaſts. No horſes are reared in the interior; and it is obſerved they die ſoon after they are brought there, both from the change of climate, and from the want of proper care and management.

Having now deſcribed the two great diviſions of the iſland, we purpoſe, at ſome future opportunity, to introduce a ſketch of its inhabitants.

ALIMEC, OR HAPPINESS: AN ARABIAN TALE.

WHILE Alimec, an Arabian ſhepherd, was idly wandering about, rather caſting an occaſional look at his flock, than ſeriouſly occupied with it, he eſpied, at the foot of a hill, a grot, covered with ſhrubs and buſhes. His curioſity was excited, and groping along its dark and terrifying entrance, he perceived that a glimmering ray of light, which deſcended from above, illuminated the further end of the cave. He advanced to it, and looking about, he found a purſe, a ring, and an old papyrus. Full of eagerneſs, he extended his hand to the purſe; but finding it empty—A plague on thee! ſaid he, for having flattered and then diſappointed my expectations. Oh! if thou wert full of gold .... But, what ſignifies to wiſh it? Go, and ill luck with thee; remain where thou haſt been till now.

Saying theſe words, he threw it angrily on the ground. As it beat againſt a ſtone, Alimec heard a noiſe which ſeemed the ſound of gold. Struck with amazement, he picked it up again, and found it full. Hea-

vens! what is this? By Mahomet! here is ſome enchantment. But let there be what may, I will enjoy this gold, ſince it comes ſo ſeaſonably. Having ſpoken, he alſo took the ring and the papyrus, then fled eagerly out of the grot; and ſaid, adieu, foreſts; as long as this gold laſts, I will enjoy myſelf. Ha! if I were at Mecca! ..... Before he had finiſhed theſe words, in an inſtant he found himſelf at Mecca. More aſtoniſhed and confuſed than ever, he opened the papyrus with a trembling hand, and read in it the following words: 'The purſe ſhall be full of gold whenever thou wiſheſt it; the ring ſhall convey thee wherever thou deſireſt to go.'

At this notice, the deſire of ſeeing ſtrange countries was the firſt Alimec felt in his heart, and he would ſatisfy it without delay. The facility of tranſporting himſelf from place to place, enabled him to viſit a great part of the globe. At firſt he found the higheſt gratification in remarking the variety of the countries he paſſed through, the difference of climates, the various productions of nature, the efforts of art, the many cuſtoms and manners of the multitude of nations he ſaw; but after ſome time, this pleaſure began to ſubſide, being no longer heightened by novelty.

The further he went, the more he ſaw that the variety, which had enticed him at firſt, diminiſhed gradually; that nature and art offered nearly every where the ſame, or other not very diſſimilar objects; that the cuſtoms and manners of mankind, being all produced by the ſame paſſions, were diſtinguiſhed but by differences too ſmall for notice. The attraction of novelty ceaſing, curioſity likewiſe ceaſed entirely; and finding himſelf ſatiated with travelling, he only thought of reſt.

With that view, he choſe the city of Conſtantinople, where he thought he could beſt enjoy thoſe pleaſures which his inexhauſtible riches might eaſily furniſh him; and where the concourſe of ſo many different nations might ſerve to recal to his memory, what he had obſerved in various parts during his extenſive travels. He therefore gave himſelf up to the enjoyment of every kind of pleaſure, to ſatisfy every caprice, to ſwim in delights and ſolaces. Nevertheleſs, he was not long before he found himſelf tired of theſe alſo. By long habit, the moſt exquiſite delights became inſipid to him; the more he ſought variety, the more he found ſatiety in every object: his vacant mind was oppreſſed by an intolerable wearineſs. An illneſs, which attacked him in conſequence of his irregular way of living, convinced him perfectly that happineſs is not to be found in a ſoft, voluptuous, idle and effeminate life: he therefore reſolved to ſeek it in occupation and employment.

The immenſity of his riches eaſily gained him patrons and friends; the knowledge he had acquired in his travels, made him eaſily be taken for a man fit to be employed in the moſt important affairs. He ſoon gradually roſe to the higheſt offices till he attained the moſt elevated poſt, being that of grand vizier. Then buſineſs began to beſiege him on all ſides: at one time the commands of his ſovereign, at another the unremitting applications of the ſubjects, did not leave him a moment of liberty or reſt. The caprices of the effeminate and ignorant monarch, the reſtleſſneſs of the ladies of the ſeraglio, conſpiracies and plots of rivals and envious people, kept him in perpetual agitations and fears. He began to find from experience, that dignities and honours lead only to a ſplendid ſlavery. Satiated with theſe alſo, he began to think of retiring; when news was brought to the ſublime Port, that Perſia was preparing for war: he therefore was ordered to haſten with a powerful army, to repreſs the pride of the enemy; an ardour for glory aroſe in his breaſt, and he obeyed the ſummons.

His firſt two battles were crowned with ſucceſs; in them he completely routed the enemy, and compelled them

to evacuate the whole province of Turkeſthan, which he had already occupied. The conquering vizier was therefore loaded with praiſes and honours: the name of Alimec, adorned with all the embelliſhments of eaſtern hyperboles, reſounded throughout the extenſive empire: the grand ſignior was preparing to receive him in his capital, with all 'the ſolemn pomp, pride, and circumſtance of war;' when advancing with too great eagerneſs in the enemy's country, he imprudently fell into an ambuſcade, and extricated himſelf only by loſing a great part of his array. The ſcene immediately ſhifted. Praiſes were changed to execrations, and in lieu of the honours of a ſplendid triumph, he was preſented with the fatal though gilded bow-ſtring.

The ring fortunately ſaved him from that danger: he diſappeared; and after having travelled over various regions of India, perpetually haunted by diſguſt and reſtleſſneſs, he finally ſtopped at Golconda.

On his arrival at that capital, he found on the throne a princeſs, whoſe charms gave her the crown over all the beauties of Aſia. The firſt time he beheld her, he was captivated by her faſcinating beauty, and, without delay, procured himſelf to be introduced at court. The magnificence he diſplayed, his noble air, his graceful and engaging manners, his elegant converſation, full of liveline's and variety, the information his extenſive travels enabled him to furniſh, attracted the attention of Selima, the abovementioned enchanting princeſs, and ſhe could not repreſs a wiſh for the converſation of Alimec. He received an invitation to remain at Golconda, which he accepted very willingly. On his account, fetes were given, hunting parties made, and diverſions ordered. On his ſide, magnificence and taſte were diſplayed in dreſſes, jewels, and ſplendid retinues. He by degrees obtained the confidence of Selima, and in proceſs of time ſhe ſeemed to have a tender partiality for him; ſhe even permitted him to hope for her hand. Intoxicated with joy, Alimec thought he at laſt had attained that happineſs of which he had been ſo long in purſuit; when the envy of the courtiers, who ill brooked the idea of a ſtranger's yoke, ſuggeſted the ſcheme of inventing againſt him a calumny of the blackeſt die, and with all the colours of probability and truth, they repreſented it ſo well to the eyes of the queen that ſhe gave immediate orders for his death: he therefore was under the neceſſity of recurring to the friendly aid of his ring to ſave his life once more.

He departed with his mind full of regret and indignation, at ſeeing his hopes fruſtrated in an inſtant, and that happineſs he had dreamt to have found, vaniſh as ſuddenly: he journeyed through other regions of Aſia, without knowing where to ſtop, being always uneaſy and diſſatisfied with himſelf; he finally determined to go to China. One day, as he wandered, penſive and gloomy, in remote and loneſome fields, he heard on one ſide joyful ſongs and lively muſic: induced by curioſity, he directed his ſteps toward the pleaſing ſounds. Being arrived at a farm houſe, he ſaw a number of country lads and laſſes diverting themſelves with merry ſongs and ſprightly dances. Aſtoniſhed at ſeeing joy, ſo pure and ſincere, ſparkling on every countenance, he approached a venerable gray headed cottager, whoſe hearty looks and cheerful air ſhowed that age had not diminiſhed his vigour; he was looking, with eyes expreſſive of pleaſure, at the gay dance. Alimec aſked him the cauſe of that extraordinary merry-making. It is not extraordinary for us, replied the old man. On the days conſecrated for reſt, after paying due homage to the tutelar deity of our fields, we paſs the remaining hours in innocent joy.—You make ſweet amends, obſerved Alimec, for the toilſome labours you muſt endure, and the wretched life you are compelled to lead the other days.—The old man

replied, ſmiling, I have paſſed more than ſeventy years in this very life, and cannot ſay I ever found it wretched. I know that you great people think that no happineſs can exiſt, where there is not plenty of gold and ſilver, and where valuable ſhining jewels are not ſeen; but us country people, when we go to your cities and ſee the confuſion, crowding, and tumult that reign through them, feel oftener compaſſion than envy for your riches. Tranquillity is not for you; pride, avarice, and ambition drive it inceſſantly from you, and where tranquillity is not, happineſs cannot be. We have leſs riches than you; gold and ſilver are hardly known to us: but thoſe things you buy with them, are furniſhed to us by our herds, our flocks, and our lands—we are ſatisfied; and therefore happy.

Alimec was ſurpriſed at the old man's words; and being deſirous of knowing how he could, notwithſtanding poverty and labour, enjoy that happineſs which he could never attain in opulence and luxury, reſolved to have ſome converſation with him.—Well, ſaid he, it ſeems to me very ſtrange that men like you, who are obliged to live continually in labour and on hard fare, can ever be called happy.—Labour, replied the old man, to one who is accuſtomed from long habit to continual idleneſs, may perhaps appear a heavy burden; but to us, it is only a relief. I never have paſſed ſuch melancholy hours, as when I have chanced to be obliged to ceaſe from my uſual employments, and to be doing nothing. Time hung heavily upon my hands, and crept along with intolerable ſlowneſs; every moment ſeemed an age: but when engaged at my work, I find the end of the day come on without hardly perceiving it, nor do I feel for a moment the heavy weight of irkſomeneſs which I have found to be ſo unbearable, whenever I was obliged to be idle.—But the continual burden of labour, ſaid Alimec, muſt be bore, which is much more intolerable and heavy.—The burden of labour, anſwered the old man, is heavy to a ſlave who is condemned to bear it againſt his will, and who is prevented from reſting when neceſſity requires it: but ſuch a being is not to be found among us. When I feel tired, I reſt quietly as much as I want, and then retake my work with freſh ſtrength. I do not allow any one of my people to fatigue himſelf more than he ought, or beyond his ſtrength. Labour is no longer a burden, but a pleaſant exerciſe. It engages our attention, and drives from us all tireſome, fooliſh, and dull thoughts: our bodies gain an increaſe of health and vigour; they are free from thoſe complaints, which ſo often afflict idle men. Food and ſleep are infinitely ſweeter after it; and even while it laſts, the thoughts of the fruits that are to be produced by it give us a continual pleaſure, which is unknown to you rich and great men. Every furrow I plough in my field, recals to my mind a happy harveſt day, and that thought furniſhes me beforehand with all the pleaſure.—But, obſerved Alimec, the fruits you gather from ſuch long labours are very trifling at laſt, if compared to what the rich enjoy without labour or difficulty.—When I quench completely my thirſt at the little brook that runs hard by, replied the old man, what do I care whether other people drink up all the Hoango? My field and my flock afford me enough to ſatisfy all my wants; which being done, I am contented: what can I wiſh for more? Happineſs does not conſiſt in poſſeſſing much, but in knowing how to enjoy peaceably what induſtry or fortune gives us, and being ſatisfied with it. You, who roll in plenty, are in reality poorer than I, becauſe your deſires are continually increaſing. Nature has given us few wants, and they are eaſily ſatisfied; according to our ſaying, that

> The wants of nature are but few,
> To go beyond oft makes us rue.

Caprice forms to you a thouſand

others, which I neither know nor care for; and the impoſſibility of ſatisfying them, excites in you a thouſand bitter thoughts and uneaſineſſes. Three things (and you may give credit to an old man, who has been taught by long experience, and who in the courſe of his life has often witneſſed the buſtle and noiſe of cities, and the tranquillity and ſilence of the country) three things, and no more, are requiſite; but they are all equally indiſpenſible: theſe are tranquillity, occupation, and contentment. Keep your mind in a tranquil ſtate, by driving away enmities and diſcord, by repreſſing turbulent paſſions, and by overcoming or bearing with firmneſs the ills inſeparable from the human condition: learn to avoid irkſomeneſs, by ſhunning idleneſs, and employing yourſelf uſefully: know how to enjoy wiſely whatever heaven grants you, whether much or little, and be contented with it: you then will be happy.

Alimec was aſtoniſhed at finding ſo much ſenſe in a peaſant; and the latter part of his diſcourſe impreſſed itſelf more deeply than any other in his mind. When he had bid adieu to the old man, he went repeating to himſelf what he had heard from him; and the more he revolved it in his mind, the more what had been ſaid to him ſeemed true. Is it poſſible, ſaid he to himſelf, that the happineſs of which I have been ſo ardently in purſuit, is to be found in a country life, the life I was born and bred to? and that by quitting it, I have only quitted and wandered ſtill further from the object of my reſearches? Ah! the wonderful ſecrets I diſcovered in the grot, which I thought myſelf ſo happy in finding, muſt then be highly fatal! For if I reflect impartially, what can I ſay otherwiſe to it? What profit have I received from them yet? Tired with wandering about, I have only gained the ſad experience and knowledge of the wickedneſs of men, which I found every where alike, and of their folly extravagantly varied; nauſeated with inſipid pleaſures, which never produced me a moment's real ſatisfaction, but have repeatedly driven me to the brink of the grave; overcome by vain ambition, a load of confuſed cares, reſtleſs thoughts, and varied troubles, which I ſaw rewarded with a halter; perfidiouſly betrayed by a woman, who feigned to love me, and had flattered my hopes to ſo high a degree—I now wander without knowing where to ſtop, and am become odious and intolerable to myſelf. How much better would it have been for me to have remained in my native plains, and in my original ſimplicity! The food I there took was leſs artfully prepared: but how ſavoury did that appetite which never failed, render it! My apparel was plain, but how much better did it defend me from the inclemency of the weather, than that which the capricious flights of faſhion has preſcribed to me at various times? My cottage was humble, but what long and ſweet ſleep did I not take in it, free from all uneaſineſs, and troubleſome thoughts! The care of my flock, or the cultivation of my field, occupied my whole day; but how preferable was ſuch occupation to the diſguſting liſtleſſneſs, the inſeparable companion of idleneſs, which has ſo frequently tormented me! Ah! the venerable old man, whom heaven has made me meet with, to return to the path I had ſtrayed from, is perfectly right. He is the voice of a propitious deity, that recals me to the right road from which I had wandered:—I muſt follow him.

After paſſing the night in theſe thoughts, he roſe at the firſt dawn, and returning to the good old man, entreated him to conſent to his living with him for the future, that he might at laſt begin to enjoy with him that happineſs which he had in vain ſought for in ſo many remote parts of the world. The old man, with a pleaſing ſmile, ſaid to him—I rejoice at hearing that the ſimplicity and innocence of our life ſeem much happier to you, than perhaps they did yeſterday: but this life would not be ſuitable to you now, nor does happineſs dwell in cot-

tages only. In the midſt of the tumult of cities, ſurrounded by opulence, you may find it if you chooſe. It will be enough if you can keep unchangeably your peace of mind; if you can be ſatisfied with what you poſſeſs, repreſſing wiſhes always immoderate by their nature; and if you can occupy yourſelf honeſtly and wiſely in ſome purſuit: nothing more is requiſite.

I ſee plainly, replied Alimec, that I could do all what you ſay, but it would coſt me too much trouble to ſeek by myſelf a way to happineſs, which you already offer me, fit to be followed. Beſides, a rural life is not ſo new to me, but I can eaſily adapt myſelf to it. He then related to him his origin, his finding in the grot the fatal purſe and ring, and his ſubſequent adventures. Then offering both to the good old man, he ſaid, to you, I freely give them; only grant me leave to remain here with you, and that I may never quit you. The wiſe old man, at theſe words, replied, well, ſince you wiſh it, I accept your gift, but not to make any uſe of it; Heaven preſerve me from ſo bad a thought; I accept it only to keep it for you, ſhould you ever be tired with the frugal and ſimple life we lead, and wiſh to have it back again. Although the reſolution you have taken is wiſe, it ſeems to me rather a little too ſudden and haſty; it might ſome day lead you to a late repentance. You may experience as long as you pleaſe our mode of living; if you approve of it, you may remain while it pleaſes you: but ſhould you ever be tired of it, I by no means will prevent you from taking back your gift, and quitting us at any time.

Alimec was highly pleaſed at the kind reception he met with, and the wiſe determination of the old man; therefore laying aſide all thoſe vain thoughts which had tormented him in a thouſand various ways, and giving himſelf entirely up to tranquillity, frugality, and occupation, he ſoon began to feel that pure pleaſure, and perfect ſatisfaction of mind, unknown to him before. After ſome time had elapſed, he found that far from diſliking his ſituation, he became more attached to it every day; he therefore thought of crowning his happineſs, and fixing it ſo that it could no longer eſcape him. The good old man had a daughter, whoſe beauty and purity of morals were equally captivating. Alimec, after he had given, as he thought, a ſufficient idea of himſelf to her father, ſo as to induce him not to fear to grant her in marriage to him, aſked her of him with ardent ſolicitations. But the father, from long experience, being too well acquainted with the inconſtancy of the human heart, and miſtruſting Alimec's reſolution, required a much longer trial of his perſeverance. Finally, ſeeing in him ſuch certain proofs of a mind perfectly contented with the new life he had embraced, and totally alienated from any thoughts of quitting it, he would no longer defer to ſatisfy his wiſhes: and Alimec being finally arrived at that perfect happineſs, which neither riches, pleaſures, nor honours had ever been able to procure him, he conſigned the purſe and ring to deſtruction, determined that no one ſhould ever again become the dupe of that infatuation, which their baleful poſſeſſion muſt excite, and which had involved him in miſfortune and diſappointment.

NEW VARNISH FOR EARTHEN WARE.

A NEW varniſh for earthen ware has lately been diſcovered. To make it, white glaſs and ſoda in equal portions muſt be very finely pulverized, carefully ſifted, and well mixed. The mixture is then expoſed to a ſtrong heat till it is rendered very dry. It is afterward put into veſſels which have been already baked, is then melted, and the varniſh is made. It may be applied in the ſame manner as that in common uſe. The advantage of it is that it is ſafe, and can have none of thoſe poiſonous effects which ariſe from the decompoſition of the lead varniſh.

History *of* Astronomy *for the* Year 1802.

[Read in the Athenæum of Paris, December 30, by Jerome Lalande.]

IF we were aſtoniſhed laſt year to ſee the Hiſtory of Aſtronomy begin with the diſcovery of a ninth planet, we ought to be much more ſo to find this year alſo a diſcovery of the like kind, which we did not expect. It was alſo by a fortunate chance that the tenth planet was found; but it was neceſſary that chance ſhould favour an aſſiduous and intelligent aſtronomer.

At nine in the evening on the 28th of March 1802, Dr. Olbers obſerved, at Bremen, Piazzi's planet, which had afforded occupation to aſtronomers for a year. He was examining with his teleſcope all the ſmall ſtars in the Virgin's wing to aſcertain their poſitions; and that he might be enabled to determine with more eaſe the places of the planet, he had arrived at the twentieth ſtar of Virgo, near which he had obſerved the planet in the month of January, and was ſurpriſed to ſee near this ſtar, which is of the ſixth magnitude, another ſmall one of the ſeventh. He was certain that it had not been there at the time of his firſt obſervations: he therefore haſtened to determine its poſition; and having continued to view it for two hours, he perceived that in this interval it had changed its poſition. The two following nights afforded him the means of determining its motion, which was 10′ per day. As ſoon as he had made public this curious obſervation, aſtronomers took the earlieſt opportunity of obſerving this new ſtar, and of calculating its orbit. Dr. Gauſs, an able geometrician of Brunſwick, calculated the elements, and C. Burckhardt employed himſelf on ſimilar calculations.

On the 4th of June, C. Burckhardt finiſhed his calculations in regard to this ſtar of Olbers. We expected them with great impatience, being deſirous to know whether it was a planet or a comet. He found its revolution to be four years ſeven months and twenty-ſeven days; its diſtance 2·785, or ninety-ſix millions of leagues; its eccentricity 0·2463, which produces an inequality of 28° 25′; its inclination 34° 51′; its node 5° 22° 28′; its aphelion 10° 2° 3′; and the epoch of its longitude for 1802, 4° 23° 10′.

On the 14th of November, C. Burckhardt publiſhed others in the Moniteur, which correſpond to the obſervations made as far as the 20th of September 1802. The revolution four years ſeven months thirteen days; diſtance 2·7699; eccentricity 0·2463; inclination 34° 38′ 0″; node 5° 22° 27′ 35″; aphelion 10° 1° 12′ 19″; epoch of 1802, 4° 23° 21′ 38″, the 31ſt of December preceding; equation 28° 25′. C. Burckhardt has calculated alſo the perturbations of Olbers' planet, which amount to ſeveral degrees; they are long and difficult, and will require changes in the foregoing elements. Dr. Gauſs has publiſhed in Von Zach's journal for September an ephemeris of Olbers' planet up to the 1ſt of July 1803. But C. Burckhardt, when he has finiſhed his calculation of the perturbations, will give us elements ſtill more certain.

In the beginning of January, Dr. Olbers found again Piazzi's planet, which had diſappeared for a long time; and aſtronomers continued to obſerve it till the month of July. After the 15th of February, Dr. Gauſs calculated the new elements; but C. Burckhardt undertook to calculate the perturbations which that planet experiences by the attraction of Jupiter, and found more exact elements. We afterward received the perturbations calculated by M. Oriani of Milan, and which Dr. Gauſs took into account that he might better obtain the elements of its orbit. Thoſe given in Von Zach's journal for the month of November; diſtance 2·7675; tropical revolution 1681 days nine hours;

eccentricity 0·078835; equation 9° 2′; inclination 10° 57′ 37″; epoch for 1803 at Gotha, 233° 37′ 35″; aphelion 326° 37′ 40″; node 80° 35′ 1″.

The king of Naples has made an addition of 1200 francs to Piazzi's ſalary, in conſequence of his diſcovery of the new planet, and the homage he has rendered to his majeſty by naming it in his writings *Ceres Ferdinandea*.

This year we have had alſo a comet, and though very ſmall it was diſcovered in three places: at Marſeilles, on the 24th of Auguſt, by Louis Pons, keeper of the obſervatory; on the 28th, by C. Mechain, one of our moſt celebrated aſtronomers, to whom we are already indebted for a great number; at Breman, on the 2d of September, by Dr. Olbers, who diſcovered the tenth planet. This comet was in Serpentarius, very faint and ill defined, having a very ſenſible nucleus.

C. Mechain and C. Meſſier at Paris, and C. Vidal at Mirepoix, obſerved it with care till the 3d of October; and C. Mechain calculated its elements in the following manner from his own obſervations: Node 10ˢ 10° 17′; inclination 57° 0′; perihelion 11ˢ 2° 8′; diſtance 1·0942; paſſage of the perihelion, September 9, 20ʰ 43′ 15″ direct motion. The elements calculated by Dr. Olbers, as well as his obſervations, have been inſerted in Von Zach's journal.

It may here be ſeen that this comet is among the ſmall number of thoſe which at their greateſt proximity to the ſun are further diſtant than the earth: it is the 93d the orbits of which are known.

C. Lalande junior has had the ſatisfaction of furniſhing exact poſitions of ſtars, before unknown, with which aſtronomers had been often obliged to compare this comet; and the ſame thing has happened to him theſe fifteen years.

The new tables of the moon by M. Burg, form a very important epoch in the hiſtory of aſtronomy for this year. I was informed by Dr. Von Zach that M. Burg had been employed at Vienna, amid poverty and obſcurity, in calculating obſervations of the moon made at Greenwich, with the hope of improving the tables of the moon: and on the 19th of March 1798, the commiſſioners of the Inſtitute, being aſſembled at the Board of Longitude to determine on the ſubject for a prize, I propoſed to them to require the eſtabliſhment of the epochs of the moon by a great number of obſervations. I knew that M. Burg had calculated a great many, and I judged that this would give him an opportunity of publiſhing them, and at the ſame time afford us the means of rewarding his labour. When the prize came to be adjudged, as C. Bouvard made a great many intereſting reſearches alſo, it was thought proper to divide it. But general Bonaparte, who that day preſided, propoſed to double the prize, in order that each might have 3400 francs; and this was agreed to.

C. Laplace, finding that this ſum was too ſmall for ſo immenſe a labour as that of C. Burg, and that he could deduce from theſe calculations all the moon's equations with a preciſion never before obtained, induced the Board of Longitude to propoſe a prize of 6000 francs, and prevailed on the miniſter of the Marine and of the Interior to furniſh each the half of this ſum. The queſtion was publiſhed on the 20th of June 1800, and by the commencement of November 1801, we received the tables ſo much wiſhed for; and then ſeveral ſupplements. On the 26th of January, C. Laplace announced to the Inſtitute, that he had found in the theory of the moon an equation the period of which is 180 years, and which amounts to 16″; ſo that it will ſerve to explain the diſagreement obſerved between the mean motion of the moon 100 years ago and that given by the laſt obſervations. This equation is compoſed of two terms, of which, for the moment, we can have only the ſum; but it has

ſerved to eſtabliſh in the motion of the moon, at different periods, a regularity which before could not be obtained.

On the 25th of July, a deputation from the Board of Longitude went to give in its report to the firſt conſul on the labours of Burg, and the prize of 6000 francs. I reminded him, that he had cauſed the firſt prize to be doubled, and that it would be worthy of his character to double the preſent one. He inſtantly complied. The miniſter Chaptal, who was preſent, propoſed to me to induce Burg to come to Paris, where he ſhould have a penſion of 3000 francs. He would be an excellent co-operator in improving aſtronomy in France, where it is already ſo much cultivated: but this worthy aſtonomer preferred his own country with leſs advantage. His tables of the moon are about to be printed, as well as the new tables of the ſun by Delambre; and we have already communicated them to Dr. Maſkelyne, the aſtronomer royal of England, who will be enabled by them to improve the Nautical Almanac, which ſince 1767, has been of the greateſt utility to navigators.

The report of C. Delambre will be publiſhed in the *Connoiſſance des Temps* for the year 13, which is about to appear.

The Arabic text of all the obſervations in the manuſcript of Ibn Iunis, lent to us by the Batavian republic, with a tranſlation by C. Cauſſin, and an extract from the part which it was not judged neceſſary to tranſlate and to print, has been finiſhed at the printing-office of the republic. C. Cauſſin is the firſt of all the profeſſors of Arabic who has rendered his knowledge really uſeful. I reproached them fifty years ago, on account of their tranſlating nothing but romances.

The obſervation of the eighteenth tranſit of Mercury over the ſun's diſc on the morning of November 9, perfectly ſucceeded. We were the more intereſted in it, as it will not be again ſeen at Paris, till the 5th of May 1832. It confirmed, in the completeſt manner, the exactneſs of my tables of Mercury. The egreſs of the centre, according to a mean of all the obſervations, took place at 7′ 34″ afternoon; and the longitude of Mercury which I thence deduced is 7ˢ 16° 17′ 9″, at 21ʰ 2′ 40″ mean time of the conjunction, even taking into account the correction to be made in the tables of the ſun, which by my nephew Lalande was obſerved to be—10″ 4; the geocentric latitude in conjunction 56″. I have had the moſt ſatisfactory confirmation of the theory of Mercury, which I gave in the firſt memoir, read in the firſt ſitting of the firſt claſs of the Inſtitute on the 1ſt of January 1796. More details on this ſubject will be found in the Memoirs of the Inſtitute.

M. Caſella, phyſician to the king of Naples, and M. Bygge, aſtronomer royal of Copenhagen, &c. have ſent me exact obſervations of this tranſit.

The ſolſtice was exactly obſerved with whole circles by C. Delambre, and by C. Burckhardt and Lalande junior. The mean of four hundred obſervations gives 23° 28′ 7″, or 7″ more than in my tables: laſt year it was only 6″; we ought to be ſatisfied with this agreement.

Duc-la Chapelle has publiſhed, in the fourth volume of the Memoirs of the Inſtitute, ſolſtitial obſervations which give him 31″ for the ſecular diminution of the obliquity of the ecliptic. C. Mechain has ſtill found 10 ſeconds leſs for the obliquity of the winter ſolſtice.

C. Vidal has ſent in his obſervations of the new planets and a great many others: he has even had the complaiſance to terminate ſome zones of circumpolar ſtars which were not complete in the *Hiſtoire Celeſte Françoiſe* publiſhed in 1801.

The inferior conjunction of Venus, obſerved in the end of December, by C. Burckhardt and Lalande, gave us for the correction of my tables + 29′, which do not make 10 in the longitude ſeen from the ſun.

But as the tables of Venus had not

yet been calculated with the perturbations, and as C. Lalande junior propoſed to undertake this labour, C. Chabrol furniſhed him with a table of the equation calculated to tenths of ſeconds, which was an eſſential preliminary. It is time it ſhould be begun. We have forty years exact obſervations of Venus; and theſe forty years obſervations, from 1761 to 1801, will give us the motion of Venus as exact as the Babylonian obſervation made 2072 years ago, and reſpecting which there is ſome doubt, as I have already explained. (*See Memoirs de l'Academie* 1785, *page* 250.)

The oppoſition of Mars, which took place on the 24th of December, could not be obſerved; but the obſervations of that night gave a correction in the tables of Lalande junior — 5″; which make only two in the heliocentric longitude.

The diſappearance of Saturn's ring, which will take place in 1803, has been preceded by a ſingular phenomenon. The *anſes* were on the point of diſappearing, and it was with difficulty that C. Mechain diſcovered them on the morning of December 20. C. Flaguergues alſo loſt ſight of them on the 16th. But we ſhall ſoon ſee them reappear, as the earth will return on the 28th of June: the ſun paſſing through the plane of the ring, we ſhall loſe ſight of them till the 23d of Auguſt, at which time the earth will paſs to the north of the ring, and permit us to ſee the ſurface of it illuminated by the ſun. *Duſejour, Traite analytique des Mouvemens Celeſtes*, vol. ii, page 155.

C. Chabrol and C. Flaguergues have calculated a great number of tables of aberrations and nutations for 600 ſtars of the fundamental catalogue which Lalande junior inſerts every year in the *Connoiſſance des Temps*, and always with new improvements.

C. Lalande, my nephew, continues to obſerve the right aſcenſions and declination of a great number of ſtars not well known; and madame de Lalande continues the reductions, which ſhe promiſed, for the 50,000 ſtars: 1500 will be found in the *Connoiſſance des Temps* for the year 13, which will ſoon appear; and M. Bode has publiſhed more than 10,000 in the catalogue of 17,000 ſtars which accompany the large and beautiful atlas in twenty ſheets which I have already announced.

Laſt year I gave an account of the labour undertaken by the Swediſh aſtronomers Svanberg, Olverbom, Olmquiſt, and Palander, to verify the degree of the meridian under the polar circle. M. Melanderhielm, though ſeventy-ſix years of age, ſet on foot and directed this enterpriſe. In 1801, they had already diſcovered the ſtations, elevated the ſignals, and built two obſervatories. They ſet out in the month of January 1802, and meaſured the baſe on the ice of the river Torneo between the 6th of February, and the 8th of April, though the cold was 24°. At the beginning of September they had completed the meaſurement of the angles of their triangles, and ſet out to proceed northward to Pathavara to commence their aſtronomical obſervations. We ſhall therefore ſoon have the curious reſult of this new meaſurement.

On the other hand, C. Mechain, in conſequence of the conſular decree of September 17, is about to reſume the meaſurement of the meridian as far as the iſland of Cabrera, which is forty leagues ſouth of Barcelona, agreeably to his wiſh, which I announced in the *Connoiſſance des Temps* for the year 10. By theſe means the 45th degree, which it is particularly intereſting for us to be well acquainted with, will be a mean of the whole interval.

The Portugueſe, whoſe ſilence we regretted, begin to diſtinguiſh themſelves. M. Demonfort has ſent us calculations of eclipſes of the ſun viſible at Liſbon during this century: M. Monteira de Rocha, new tables of Mars, with all the perturbations. The equation is 10° 41′ 39″, greater only by 4″ than in the tables of C.

Lalande junior. M. Damoiſeau, captain-lieutenant of the royal brigade of the marine at Liſbon, has written to me that he is employed on the Nautical Ephemerides of 1806. Thoſe of 1805, were calculated directly, without employing the Nautical Almanac. I have requeſted him to wait for the new tables of the ſun and moon, which are about to be printed.

We have received alſo a deſcription of the obſervatory of Coimbra, from which it appears that it is pretty well furniſhed with inſtruments: a ſector of ten feet, a 5-feet meridian teleſcope, a $3\frac{1}{2}$-feet quadrant divided by Troughton of London.

We have received the Aſtronomical Ephemerides of father Coſſali, of Parma: they are not deſtined for aſtronomers ſuch as thoſe of Berlin, Vienna, Milan, Bologna, and Paris; but the author has added a very minute hiſtory of the two new planets, and he follows my example in giving them the names of Piazzi and Olbers; he alſo employs that of Herſchel, as a mark of homage due to them by aſtronomers.

On the 22d of June 1802, M. Van Swinden ſent us a Dutch memoir on the new meaſures, which engaged him a long time; and he has obtained a decree for eſtabliſhing the new meaſures in the Batavian republic.

Mr. Mackay has publiſhed a curious work, in England, on the longitude.

M. Van Swinden has ſent us the fourth edition of his Diſſertation, in Dutch, on the Determination of the Longitude by the Obſervation of the Moon's Diſtance from the Stars; with a diſſertation, which he publiſhed in 1788, conjointly with M. Nieuwland, on the Uſe of Sextants and Octants. He propoſes to publiſh alſo a memoir on reflecting circles, which he wiſhes to introduce into the Dutch navy; and alſo on marine time-keepers. So early as the year 1774, I went to Holland to ſolicit the introduction of aſtronomy into navigation, and obtained a promiſe for that purpoſe from the ſtadtholder and the grand penſionary. My aſtronomy was even tranſlated into Dutch: but this circumſtance was attended with little advantage at that time, notwithſtanding the need which navigators had of it. At preſent, ſince the navy reſumes new activity in the Batavian republic, and that the learned profeſſor enjoys there a well merited influence, we have reaſon to believe that aſtronomy will be employed there in an effectual manner.

M. Van Swinden explains in this work all the methods, by calculation, by graphic operations, and by inſtruments; the corrections made by Mr. Mackay to the methods of Borda and Dunthorn; thoſe of Kraft and of Douwes de Steinſtra. He has added a collection of ſuch tables as are neceſſary in navigation.

M. Mendoza has already publiſhed two large collections of tables for navigation: he has added a new method of determining the latitude by two altitudes taken out of the meridian, the calculation of which is ſhorter than the firſt approximation, which is only the commencement of the method of Douwes.

We have received the Ephemerides of Vienna for 1803, which contains the new tables of the moon by M. Trieſnecker; but it is evident that he has ſeen thoſe of M. Burg already mentioned: alſo the Ephemerides of Berlin for 1805, where M. Bode has collected 170 pages of obſervations on the new planets, and on other important points in all parts of Germany.

M. Schroeter has publiſhed a continuation of his obſervations on the ſpots of the moon, in a large volume in quarto, entitled *Selenotopographiſche Fragmente*; that is to ſay, Topographical Fragments reſpecting the Moon: to ſerve for giving a correct idea of the ſurface of that luminary, and the changes which have taken place in it, in its atmoſphere and in its mountains; by Dr. F. F. Schroeter, grand bailiff of Lilienthal, near Bremen. Part ii. 1802, pp. 365, 4to, with thirty-two plates. Göttingen.

The firſt part appeared in 1791: we publiſhed two extracts from it, which ſhow with what patience and minuteneſs this able aſtronomer has examined the ſurface of the moon.

Theſe new obſervations were made with the ſame care for twelve years, and with optical inſtruments of the greateſt power. (two teleſcopes, one of 13 and and the other of 27 feet.) They entitle him to the gratitude of aſtronomers, as they will ſerve them as a baſe and term of compariſon in their future reſearches reſpecting the changes that may take place at the ſurface of the moon. He has obſerved mountains which riſe to the height of 4000 toiſes, and others to the height of 2400. M. Schroeter has alſo determined, that the part of the lunar atmoſphere which is ſufficiently denſe to produce the crepuſcula, is 300 toiſes in height.

The author has alſo ſeen objects which he did not ſee in the courſe of his preceding obſervations, and which on the firſt view might be aſcribed to changes that have taken place at the ſurface of the moon: but he remarks, with the reſerve of an able obſerver, that the particular ſtate of the lunar atmoſphere may have concealed theſe objects at the time of his firſt obſervations.

Dr. Heuzenberg, of Hamburgh, between the months of July and October 1802, made thirty one experiments on the fall of bodies from the ſteeple of St. Michael, which is 235 Paris feet in height: and found that heavy bodies do not fall vertically; there are four lines of declination toward the eaſt, and 1·5 line toward the ſouth.

M. Guglielmini, of Bologna, found a little more. But all theſe experiments tend to prove the rotation of the earth.

[To be concluded in our next.]

REMARKS *on the* STATE *of* LITERATURE *and* SCIENCE *during the* FRENCH REVOLUTION, *now tranſlated from* 'Eſſai ſur l'Hiſtoire Generale des Science, pendant la Revolution Françaiſe.' *By* J. B. Biot, *Member of the National Inſtitute.*

IT is my deſign, in this eſſay, to trace the general hiſtory of the ſciences during the courſe of the French revolution. I ſhall confine myſelf to the taſk of conſidering them in the relation they bore to that remarkable event, without making any minute details of the diſcoveries that have been made, or of their failure or ſucceſs. The ſtate of ſcience at this period was totally without a parallel. Till this time, mankind had witneſſed the flouriſhing ſtate of ſcience under the protection of enlightened governments, and its decay in a ſtate of public diſſenſions and commotions. The revolutionary deſpotiſm impreſſed a peculiar political character on the ſciences, and converted them into an engine of ſtate, to animate the confidence of the nation, and prepare the way for victorious warfare. The benefits derived from their application were ſo extenſive, that efforts were made to perpetuate their utility. With this view, ſeveral public eſtabliſhments were founded, and among others the Polytechnic and the Normal ſchools, a precaution very neceſſary, as a great number of literati had been put to death by revolutionary tribunals, and many were in priſon, or in a ſtate of concealment and diſguiſe. The remainder being claſſed with the fabricators of arms and ammunition, were compelled to purchaſe their perſonal ſafety by prodigious exertions of intellect and induſtry. Before I proceed to that unhappy epoch, it is neceſſary to recall to mind the previous ſtate of the ſciences, at the commencement of the revolution, in order that we may be acquainted with the circumſtances which gave birth to them. The wri-

ters of the age of Louis XIV, had carried literature to the ſummit of perfection. To them the French language is indebted for its purity and elegance: all its beauties and felicities were diſplayed in their works. Their ſucceſſors were not able to rival them in thoſe departments, in which they were at once inventors, and the ſtandards of perfection; and, as the moſt ſtriking objects of polite learning were, in a manner, exhauſted, the talent of fine compoſition was employed to adorn the walks of philoſophy and ſcience. A change of this nature, which has been the ſubject of much declamation and invective, is, perhaps, leſs the effect of the ſcarcity of genius, than the inevitable conſequence of the progreſs of the human mind. The moſt flouriſhing periods of poetry have invariably preceded the empire of philoſophy and ſcience; Plato and Ariſtotle, among the Greeks, were poſterior to Sophocles and Euripides; and among the Romans, Pliny and Seneca flouriſhed near a century after the Auguſtan age. It is, moreover, a natural conſequence in the fluctuation of literature, that when it reaches its ſplendour, its influence is leſs general and extenſive. The paſſions which poetry inſpires, are of momentary duration: theſe ſallies of the imagination make no impreſſion on the courſe of political events. But philoſophy, operating on the reaſoning faculty, is attended with ſlow and durable effects, and when, in order to pleaſe, it aſſumes the graces and ornaments of ſtyle, the power it exerciſes over public opinion may be carried to ſuch a pitch that will make a total alteration in the manners of a nation, and decide the deſtiny of ſtates. France, ſince the reign of Louis XIV, has exhibited a conſtant demonſtration of this truth.

Boileau, Racine, and Corneille, obtained the admiration of their contemporaries, but Voltaire poſſeſſed authority over his; he did not attain the entire and excluſive perfections of his great models, but he was bleſſed with a greater flexibility of talents, a greater variety of imagination, and a wider extent of general knowledge. Their exquiſite taſte in literature was converted, in him, into a delicate ſenſation of every ſpecies of ſentimental beauty. Being independent in point of fortune, his object was only celebrity, and he communicated to men of letters, a dignity and conſideration which they never reached at any former period. His talent for criticiſm, at once ſevere and lively, and gifted at once with the energy of Rouſſeau and the reaſon of Monteſquieu, gave ſtability to the empire of public opinion, which attained at this time an irreſiſtible ſway over the minds of men. Every circumſtance concurred at this period to augment the influence of learning. The rank, the number, and the merits of its votaries, were more reſpectable than any former arrangement of the different profeſſors of knowledge. The ſciences, being clothed in the moſt amiable and attracting attire, were introduced into the polite world. Fontenelle had, in a manner, uſhered them into polite company. The new embelliſhments with which knowledge was decorated, engaged in its cauſe, not only thoſe who really loved literature, but others who only deſired to poſſeſs the appearance of ſuperficial attainment, without the ſolidity of real knowledge. In the perſon of D'Alembert, it was proved that the ſeverity of ſcience is no enemy to the graces of a cultivated imagination, nor to the talent of fine compoſition. Buffon made it evident that ſcience and the moſt copious and brilliant eloquence are not incompatible. A ſucceſs ſo general ſecured the popular favour, and excited an enthuſiaſm for the arts and ſciences, which achieved a conqueſt over polite literature, already arrived at a period of diſſolution and decay, and become more exact and reaſonable than ſuſceptible of feeling and paſſion. Perhaps the attraction of novelty was ſubſidiary to a revolution of this nature, but it certainly was not the only cauſe. Nothing is ſo glorious, nor ſo worthy of the admiration of mankind;

is the ſpectacle of genius explaining and unfolding the eternal laws of nature. The ſciences, by the general diffuſion of their light, contributed in the moſt efficacious manner to diſpel the prejudices which were in hoſtility with philoſophy. In order to ſecond theſe efforts, an immenſe work was planned, in which the whole circle of human knowledge was to be included in a ſyſtematic arrangement, without excluding the minutiæ of the details of every ſcience, which were to be found under ſuitable references. Such was the plan and object of the Encyclopedia which was publiſhed by Diderot and D'Alembert. This immenſe production, drawn up in haſte by a multitude of different writers, muſt neceſſarily have been defective in the general execution. It may be even ſuppoſed imperfect in many of the details; but it has, nevertheleſs, anſwered the views of the compilers, which were directed toward providing men of the world with a table of matters of general information, and a variety of knowledge, which otherwiſe muſt have been inacceſſible to them. It was the firſt and moſt difficult ſtep toward inſpiring them with a taſte for true inſtruction, for it is the natural effect of ſelf-love to deſpiſe thoſe branches of knowledge which people in general are ignorant of. In this point of view, the Encyclopedia was a barrier to prevent for ever the retrograde motion of the human mind. The enemies of philoſophy were alarmed, and revenged themſelves by perſecutions, but the triumph of reaſon was complete: and though this work muſt continue in a ſtate of imperfection, from the progreſſive advancement of arts and ſciences, the recollection of it will always be preſerved, as being a monument equally honorable to the men who planned it, to the people among whom it was executed, and to the epoch which was worthy of an undertaking ſuitable to the encouragement which it beſtowed.

We have now ſeen by what degrees the ſciences, toward the cloſe of the eighteenth century, gained poſſeſſion of that influence which was conſidered, before that period, as the attendant on literature alone; it now remains to explain, by means of their real ſtate at that time, and in the progreſs they have made, the cauſes which may ſecure the durability of this favour. An opinion has prevailed of late, not deſtitute of ſome appearance of wiſdom, and ſupported by reſpectable authorities, that human learning may be compared to the waves of the ſea, and that it has its flux and reflux at different eras of the world; that knowledge riſes to a high pitch in ſome conjunctures, only to ſink ſtill lower at others; and in ſhort, by ſuch means, eſtabliſhes limits to its progreſs which it is deſtined never to paſs. To ſtrengthen this ſuppoſition, we are told of the little progreſs the ſciences have made ſince their firſt cultivation, the ſtrange and contradictory ſyſtems which have ſucceſſively been adopted by mankind, and above all, the inſufficiency of the moſt accurate method, when we have to ſtruggle with the myſterious ſubtlety of nature. This idea of viciſſitude, diſpleaſing to the reſtleſs imaginations of people in general, which ſeek for a ſtate of greater perfection in the annals of paſt times, and, compaſſionating the inadequate aids and inſtruments of ſcience which men have attained, condemn for raſhneſs, and chimerical ſpeculations, thoſe who endeavour to add ſomething to the general ſtate of improvement. But where is this period of remote antiquity to be found, the experience of which muſt be conſidered as the ſtandard of our rationality? The annals of nations, which poſſeſs any ſhare of authenticity, go no further back than twenty-eight centuries. Even in this interval, it would be impoſſible to enumerate more than eight hundred years which were fertile in the culture of the human mind; the reſt is a deſert abandoned to ignorance and barbarity.—The Greeks and Romans, who have

ſeen a part of thoſe favorable periods, devoted them to the ſtudy of morality and the improvement of literature.—It is only among our weſtern nations, particularly ſince the diſcovery of printing, that the ſciences have been generally cultivated, and have taken a philoſophical direction, that is, each of them has been adapted to bring the others to perfection, and their progreſs ſince that epoch has been ſteady and regular. To be convinced of this truth, we need only caſt our eyes on their hiſtory. When the commerce of the Arabians, and of the Greeks, eſcaped from the taking of Conſtantinople, brought back into Europe the taſte for ſcience, that was in a ſtate of long oblivion, natural hiſtory was one of the firſt objects of attention. The works of Ariſtotle were read and commented. Some natural philoſophers were formed; they were learned compilers, who ſpread the love of literature, and ſerved its cauſe without adding to its improvement. In the mean time, the habit of travelling gave riſe to the faculty of obſervation. It was not then thought ſufficient to ſtudy the image of nature in the writings of the ancients, they wiſhed to ſee nature itſelf living and animated. Soon after, the diſcovery of a new world, filled with ſtrange productions, invited a number of obſervers, and facts and deſcriptions were multiplied.

Already attempts had been made to connect the different arrangements of animals by mutual relations, to collect them into groups and families, and to diſtribute them into claſſes. Natural hiſtory continued to advance till the eighteenth century with a ſteady and uniform ſtep. At this time, Linneus having conceived the grand idea of an univerſal ſyſtematic method, collects the ſcattered materials, ſeizes the general traits of reſemblance, and binds them together in an immenſe net, the threads of which, being always diſtinct and ſeparate, lead with certainty to the moſt minute details. Buffon was his contemporary, who indulged in the boldeſt flights, diſcovered the equilibrium of the univerſe by the reciprocal balance of forces acting inceſſantly, the ſpecies of which conſidered as individuals, are animated and immortal. His powerful eloquence, ennobling every creature in its relation to the general ſyſtem, diſcovers nature in all its majeſty. A number of celebrated writers ſecond his efforts, and natural hiſtory is ſoon raiſed to a high rank among the branches of human knowledge. When this ſcience had reached this degree of perfection, it became too extenſive to be comprehended within the limits of a ſingle life; it was therefore divided into ſeveral branches, which are ſeparately making conſiderable additions to the general ſtock of that ſpecies of knowledge. The hiſtory of animals is no longer confined to an imperfect deſcription of their external forms, but gives an exhibition of their peculiar qualities and defects. It obſerves their habits, not only among the largeſt animals, whoſe inſtinct is nothing but force, but alſo among the ſmalleſt tribes, whoſe cunning and ſagacity are proportioned to their inferior degrees of ſtrength. With the aid of anatomy, it diſcovers in the conformation of their internal organs, the explanation of the phenomena which they exhibit. By theſe means, their rank among the general aſſemblage of creatures is eaſily determined. Botany now no longer confines itſelf to forming the nomenclature of vegetables in general. An exact philoſophy is employed to diſcover the laws of their reſpective functions. Artificial methods are multiplied, and facilitate the principles of ſcience. At the ſame time a more important and ſublime ſtudy fixes the efforts of the learned. They compare the organs of the plants, in order to diſcover their diſcriminative and peculiar qualities. The diſcovery is ſoon completed by examining the origin of their exiſtence, in the firſt buddings, and bloſſoms of the tendereſt plants, which nature has ſubjected to immu-

table laws through her whole empire: then by the aid of ſyſtematic method, applied in its natural deſtination, it no longer ſerves to claſs the vegetables, but only to diſtinguiſh them, and a natural method, founded on a long ſeries of hereditary obſervations, attains this double object at the ſame time. Mineralogy is not now contented with the indeciſive characteriſtics of a mere external aſpect; it borrows from chemiſtry the means of analyſing and claſſing the different minerals. It ſeeks the phyſical properties which can render their determination an eaſy taſk, and by a ſpecies of diſſection it aſcends to the firſt elements of cryſtallized bodies, and ſetting out from theſe ſimple forms recompoſes, by a geometrical poſition, their natural and reaſonable diviſions. Being improved by theſe ſuccours, it joins to the charms of natural ſcience, that preciſion which is the conſtant reſult of a judicious employment of calculation. The ſtudy of the terreſtrial globe, which was formerly compriſed in this claſs, became a particular ſcience, which, under the title of geology, conſiders the formation of the earth, and diſcovers the ſucceſſive convulſions which it has undergone, from the terrible traces of devaſtation which are viſible on its ſurface. Anatomy having been freed from the ſhackles of prejudice and ſuperſtition, makes a ſurpriſing progreſs, and becomes the baſis of the hiſtory of animated beings. To the circulation of the blood, which had been formerly diſcovered, have been added the important phenomena of irritability, the exiſtence of the juices which prepare the decompoſition of aliments, the diſpoſal and uſe of the different veſſels which, by an infinite variety of ramifications, convey at the ſame time nouriſhment and vital ſtrength to all the points of the body. Anatomiſts are not ſatisfied with obſerving individuals, but follow the progreſſive ſtate of the different organs, from infancy to old age. This variety of knowledge furniſhes valuable information on the ſubject of phyſiology, which is nothing more as yet than a ſcience of experiment and obſervation. Surgery has become more bold, becauſe more enlightened; it ſimplifies the art of extirpating the ſtone and its excruciating pains. It ventures to provoke by inoculation that terrible malady which is contained in the germ of our lives, and which muſt be taken by ſurpriſe when we mean to attack it with ſucceſs. Wiſdom, united with experience, diſcovers a multitude of operations both admirable and ſafe, for the conſolation of humanity. In ſhort, the multiplicity of facts and obſervations, by remarking their connections, gives us a glimpſe into the general laws of animal organiſation, and the method of ſtudy which had led the way, by means of botany, to the natural method, completes comparative anatomy.

Diſtant voyages have been undertaken to examine remote countries, diſcover new regions, and enrich natural hiſtory with their productions. All their different productions have been collected into a vaſt edifice, and by means of method, being arranged together from the moſt oppoſite quarters, preſent, under one point of view, a general aſpect and a minute detail of nature. So much has been done for the natural ſciences in the courſe of the eighteenth century, which has been ſo much decried by ignorance. The progreſs of the human mind during this period is more ſenſible in thoſe ſciences which, by joining experiment to obſervation, borrow from philoſophy the means of exploring nature. Theſe ſciences had not been much improved by the Greeks and Romans, whoſe favourite ſtudy was moral philoſophy. After the revival of learning, they continued long ſtationary in Europe, where theology alone was in requeſt. Raſh and raw hypotheſes, a logic adapted to diſputation and not to invention, compoſed the ſum of their natural philoſophy. Galileo by his example, and Bacon by his writ-

ings, diſcouraged men of learning from theſe barren efforts, and brought them back to experiment; not to that hazardous experiment which reſembles feeling in the dark, but that which, always ſure and fruitful, firſt introduces light, and then diſcovers the traces of truth. Deſcartes, better qualified to lead men to his opinions, completed this revolution. He reſcued his contemporaries from that ſpecies of religious worſhip and idolatry which the philoſophy of Ariſtotle was honoured with, and taught them by the fall of their favourite idol to examine into his own pretenſions. From that time no authority was acknowledged, except that of experience and of reaſon. The ſciences, being extricated from the ſpirit of ſyſtem which had enſlaved them, followed their natural deſtination. The effects of this change were viſible at firſt in natural philoſophy, which by oppoſing the different bodies to each other, in order to diſcover their reciprocal actions, is the moſt ſimple of ſciences next to natural hiſtory, which claſſes and defines them. To this period we muſt refer the commencement of its progreſs, and the origin of thoſe labours which afterward enriched it. Natural philoſophy, conſidering the ſtate of bodies either as permanent or variable, is naturally divided into two branches. The firſt comprehends the mechanical action, which bodies communicate to each other, by virtue of their general properties: the ſecond includes the modifications requiſite to accidental and variable forces, ſuch as heat, electricity, and magnetiſm. The phenomena of permanent cauſes being the ſimpleſt, were firſt preſented to the attention of philoſophical obſervers. In the time of Newton, the laws of equilibrium and of motion were diſcovered; the pendulum was applied to the meaſurement of time, and the teleſcope to the purpoſes of aſtronomy. The weight of the atmoſphere was aſcertained; the barometer was invented, and, by the labours of that great man, the propagation of ſound and of light was demonſtrated; light was decompoſed, optical inſtruments were brought to perfection, and a multitude of facts were explained by theſe diſcoveries. The phenomena of nature in variable bodies were then little ſtudied; the general effects of heat in dilating bodies had been diſcovered, and a few properties of magnetiſm and electricity that relate to the principle of attraction.—Since the time of Newton, the mechanical part of natural philoſophy has received improvement, and a greater degree of preciſion has been introduced into the details. The ſcience of optics has provided navigators with the quadrant to diſcover the longitude at ſea, and aſtronomers with the repeating circle, ſo uſeful in the operations which are adopted for the meaſurement of the earth. Calculation and experiment have produced the theory of wind inſtruments and acromatic teleſcopes. The branch of this ſcience, which treats of accidental cauſes, has made a ſurpriſing progreſs beyond the others. The action of heat has been determined with great exactneſs; the barometer and the thermometer have been brought to perfection. The influence of temperature on the elaſticity of the air, has been calculated; its faculty of abſorbing water has been remarked, and an inſtrument has been formed which marks its degree of apparent humidity. As a natural conſequence of theſe inveſtigations, the modifications of the atmoſphere have been obſerved with regularity; and the general conſideration has been admitted, that ſolidity, liquidity, and the aeriformal ſtate are ſimple modifications produced by the reaction of the oppoſite forces, of heat which endeavours to diſſipate the moleculæ of bodies, and of attraction which endeavours to unite them. Electricity and magnetiſm have produced diſcoveries ſtill more important and ſurpriſing.

[To be continued.]

BIOGRAPHICAL REGISTER *of eminent* PERSONS *deceaſed in* 1802 *.

Rev. ARTHUR O'LEARY.

IT is a ſingular circumſtance in our literary hiſtory, and ſtrongly characteriſtic of a period of peculiar cultivation and liberality of ſentiment, that the two moſt celebrated ſcholars whoſe names occur in our preſent biographical regiſter, were clergymen of the Romiſh perſuaſion, and natives of theſe dominions. Hitherto the followers of that religion had been reſtrained and diſcountenanced by our government, and compelled to reſort to foreign countries for the benefit of a liberal education: and it was not to be expected, under ſuch circumſtances, that any uncommon inſtances of learning or literary talents ſhould ſpring up among them. The Rev. Arthur O'Leary forms a ſplendid exception to this general ſuppoſition, on the part of the Roman catholics of Ireland; and Dr. Geddes, whom we ſhall ſhortly notice, on the part of the Romaniſts of Scotland.

Mr. O'Leary was a native of Cork, and born of parents in indigent circumſtances, who nevertheleſs, from a kind of ambition peculiar to the lower order of Iriſh papiſts, contrived to have him educated, and ſent abroad to be qualified for ordination in the Romiſh church. He was accordingly ſent to the Iriſh college of St. Malo's, and, after finiſhing his ſtudies, entered into the order of Franciſcan friars. He was ſhortly after appointed chaplain to an Iriſh regiment in the French ſervice, but not exerting himſelf with zeal to encourage Iriſhmen to enter into the ſervice of France, he was removed from that ſituation. He then returned to his native country, and, by the aſſiſtance of his friends, and the inhabitants of Cork of the Romiſh perſuaſion, he built a chapel in that city, which was much frequented on account of his popularity as a preacher. At this time a Scotch phyſician had publiſhed an atheiſtical pamphlet in Cork, which attracted the public attention, and Mr. O'Leary determined to write an anſwer to it. But this was conſidered as a bold ſtep in the degraded ſituation of the Romiſh clergy at that time, and before he ventured to publiſh, he found it requiſite to apply to Dr. Mann, the biſhop of Cork, for permiſſion to enter the liſts. The Iriſh legiſlature ſoon after thought proper to relax the ſeverity of the penal laws againſt the papiſts, on condition of their taking the oath of allegiance which had been drawn up for that purpoſe. This the majority of the Roman catholics forbore to do, from the impulſe of religious ſcruples, conceiving ſuch a declaration to be repugnant to the principles of their belief. On this occaſion Mr. O'Leary exerted himſelf for the benefit of his countrymen, by publiſhing his "Loyalty aſſerted, or the Teſt Act vindicated," and completely expoſed the futility of their groundleſs ſcruples and apprehenſions. His arguments were ſucceſsful, and contributed eſſentially to reconcile the catholics to the Iriſh government, the happy effects of which appeared in that country during the American war.

In 1779, when the combined fleets of France and Spain rode triumphant in the channel, and ſeemed to threaten the coaſts of Ireland, he drew up an addreſs to the lower order of catholics in the province of Munſter, to diſſuade them from any attachment to, or co-operation with, the enemies of their country. The Iriſh government was not inſenſible to his meritorious efforts, and, conſidering the influence he had acquired by his writings over the inhabitants of that country, they judged it an act of juſtice, as well as of policy, to make ſome proviſion for him, and thereby ſecure themſelves from any oppoſition from his talents. A penſion on the Iriſh eſtabliſhment was accordingly ſettled on him. Being now at eaſe in his cir-

* See the Biographical Regiſter for 1801 in our Magazine for June 1802, p. 426.

cumſtances, he forbore the publication of his ſentiments on any ſubject of political or religious controverſy till the year 1787. At this time the inſurrections of the Iriſh whiteboys becoming alarming to the government, he addreſſed Letters to the inſurgents, with a view to diſſuade them from their violent proceedings. Dr. Woodward, biſhop of Cloyne, ſhortly after publiſhed a pamphlet on the ſtate of the Iriſh church, in which he introduced ſome unbecoming inſinuations to the prejudice of Mr. O'Leary's character. The latter was not backward in retorting on the prelate, whom he attacked in the moſt ſpirited manner with the weapons of ridicule and irony. The victory was generally adjudged to Mr. O'Leary; but it is thought that he incurred the diſpleaſure of government by the freedom of his defence, and the unreſtrained effuſion of his ſentiments, and had it not been for very powerful intereſt in his behalf, he muſt have loſt the proviſion which the government had before beſtowed on him. After this tranſaction, he reſided chiefly in England, and intermeddled no longer with the concerns of Ireland. By his means chiefly, a large chapel was built in the neighbourhood of Soho-ſquare, for the accommodation of the Iriſh poor in St. Giles'; and, in conjunction with other clergymen of his own perſuaſion, his attention was particularly directed to the buſineſs of that chapel, and the general intereſts of that religion of which he was always a zealous profeſſor. Mr. O'Leary died 8th January, 1802, aged 73 years.

Dr. Moore.

Dr. Edward Moore was born at Stirling in Scotland in the year 1730. His father was the Rev. Charles Moore, a clergyman of the church of England. In the year 1735, he had the misfortune to loſe his father, and removed with his mother to Glaſgow, where a ſmall patrimony had been left them. After the uſual time ſpent at the grammar ſchool, Dr. Moore entered as a ſtudent in the univerſity of Glaſgow, in the medical department, under the care of Dr. Gordon, a celebrated practitioner of ſurgery and pharmacy. He alſo occaſionally attended the lectures of Dr. Hamilton, a diſtinguiſhed profeſſor of anatomy. He received inſtructions likewiſe from Dr. Cullen, whoſe fame procured him the medical chair at Edinburgh. At this time the Scottiſh ſtudents of ſurgery flocked in great numbers to the army in Flanders, then commanded by the duke of Cumberland, and Dr. Moore was ſent there with recommendations to the duke of Argyle, who was ſerving as lieutenant-colonel under the command of his royal highneſs. Dr. Moore was appointed hoſpital mate at Maeſtricht, where he had frequent opportunities of extending his knowledge, from the practice and experience which the unfortunate battle of Laffeldt gave birth to. From Maeſtricht he removed to Fluſhing in the winter of the year 1747, with recommendations from Dr. Middleton, director general of military hoſpitals to the earl of Albemarle. He was ſoon after appointed aſſiſtant ſurgeon to the regiment of Coldſtream guards, then commanded by the unfortunate general Braddock, with which regiment he went to Breda in the winter of the year 1748, and, on the concluſion of peace, returned with that general to England. It is a ſingular inſtance of his aſſiduity and attention, to have been in conſtant employment and practice at the early age of ſeventeen. When in London, he attended the anatomical lectures of Dr. Hunter, and ſhortly after repaired to Paris in company with Sir W. Fordyce, which city was at that time conſidered as the beſt ſchool of ſurgery in Europe. Sir William had ſerved on the continent in the ſame capacity with Dr. Moore, and on his return to England, eſtabliſhed himſelf as a phyſician. It happened fortunately for Dr. Moore, that the earl of Albe-

marle was at this time ambaſſador at Paris: he immediately undertook the patronage of the doctor, and appointed him phyſician to the houſehold. He did not reſide in the ambaſſador's houſe, becauſe he was deſirous of being in the neighbourhood of the ſchools of phyſic, and of the hoſpitals. After a reſidence of two years at Paris, Dr. Moore was invited by his old maſter, Dr. Gordon of Glaſgow, to accept of a partnerſhip with him, and with this propoſal Dr. Moore immediately cloſed. He ſettled at Glaſgow, and, during the practice of his profeſſion, formed an acquaintance with the duke of Hamilton's family. On account of the infirm ſtate of the late duke's health, it was judged adviſable for him to viſit the continent in company with a perſon who ſhould unite a knowledge of medicine with ſome acquaintance with the continental cuſtoms and languages. Dr. Moore anſwering this deſcription, he was appointed to attend the duke in his travels. In this manner the doctor paſſed five years in viſiting France, Italy, Germany, and Switzerland. In 1778, they returned to England, and the doctor ſettled his family in London. In the following year he publiſhed his "View of Society and Manners in France, Switzerland, and Germany," which was followed in 1782 by "A View of Society and Manners in Italy." He did not practiſe as a phyſician in London, but occaſionally preſcribed for particular friends. In 1785, he publiſhed his "Medical Sketches," a work which is ſuppoſed to have given offence to his brethren of the profeſſion, by revealing ſome arcana that had been concealed from the public eye. Not long after, he publiſhed "Zeluco," a ſpecies of novel which diſcovers a deep knowledge of human nature, and of the world. In 1792, he received an invitation from lord Lauderdale to accompany him in an excurſion to Paris; but as the troubles of the revolution increaſed, his ſtay was not of long duration. On his return, toward the cloſe of the ſame year, he publiſhed a journal of the occurrences which he was witneſs to during the excurſion, with ſome judicious obſervations on the affairs of France. He publiſhed in the following year, A View of the Cauſes and Progreſs of the French Revolution, dedicated to the duke of Devonſhire. In 1796, he publiſhed Edward, or Views of Human Nature; and, in 1801, "Mordaunt, or Sketches of Life, Characters, and Manners, in various Countries." Dr. Moore was one of the firſt who patroniſed the poet Burns, who drew up an account of his life for the doctor's inſpection and correction. After his return from France, the doctor continued to live in retirement in the boſom of his family. He was married to a miſs Simpſon, a daughter of a profeſſor of divinity in the univerſity of Glaſgow, by whom he had a daughter and five ſons. Dr. Moore died at Richmond, February 20, 1802.

Dr. Geddes.

Dr. Alexander Geddes was born at Arradowl in Banffſhire, in the pariſh of Rathven, September 4th, 1737. His father was a reſpectable farmer, though not in opulent circumſtances, and of the Roman catholic perſuaſion. He was taught to read the Bible at a very early age, a circumſtance which is thought to have influenced his taſte for Biblical learning. He received the firſt rudiments of grammar from a tutor who was employed by the laird of the pariſh. He was then removed to the ſchool at Scanlan, where he laid the foundation of his claſſical knowledge. In October 1758, his parents deſigning him for the church, he was ſent to the Scotch college at Paris, of which Mr. Gordon was preſident. He attended the lectures in the college of Navarre, and was particularly attentive to the inſtructions of L'Advocat, profeſſor of Hebrew at the Sorbonne. He returned to Scotland in 1764, and was ſent to officiate as catholic prieſt at Dundee.

In 1765, he was removed to Traquaire, and was domeſtic chaplain to the earl of that title till the year 1768. The following year he went to Paris, for the purpoſe of inſpecting ſome books in the king's library, and ſhortly after undertook the charge of a congregation of catholics at Auchenhaling in Banffſhire. In 1770 he rebuilt the chapel in that place, which involved him in debts, from which he was extricated by the munificence of the duke of Norfolk. In 1780, on account of his extenſive learning, he was honoured with a diploma from the univerſity of Aberdeen, creating him a doctor of laws, an honour which had never been conferred by that body on any Roman catholic ſince the reformation. He now removed to London, and for ſome time officiated in the imperial ambaſſador's chapel, till it was ſuppreſſed by order of the emperor Joſeph, at the end of the year 1780. He afterward preached occaſionally at Lincoln's-inn fields' chapel till Eaſter 1782, when, it is imagined, he declined the exerciſe of all clerical functions, and dedicated his time to the tranſlation of the Bible, a deſign which he had kept conſtantly in mind ſince 1760. He publiſhed a proſpectus of his work, in quarto, in the year 1786. He met with a valuable patron in lord Petre, who ſupplied him with the means of proceeding in his work with every convenience that was requiſite. However, the expence of printing was exceſſive, and not adequately ſupported by a ſufficient number of ſubſcribers. He experienced a fierce oppoſition from ſome of his brethren of the Romiſh perſuaſion, who, it muſt be confeſſed, were much inferior to him in taſte and learning. The firſt volume of his tranſlation, which contained the firſt ſix books of the Old Teſtament, appeared in 1792, with a dedication to lord Petre. The ſecond was retarded by his illneſs, and did not appear till 1797, when it was uſhered into the world with a dedication to the ducheſs of Glouceſter, who had patroniſed the work. In 1800 he publiſhed a volume of critical remarks, in which he vindicated his tranſlation, and in which, it is remarkable, that he denies the inſpiration of the writers of the ſacred volumes.

Dr. Geddes had intended to preſent the world with a new tranſlation of the book of Pſalms, but during the laſt year of his life he was interrupted in his labours by a long ſeries of painful affliction. He had already printed one hundred and four of the Pſalms, when he was arreſted in his career by a moſt excruciating diſorder, which terminated his valuable and important life on the 26th of February 1802.

FRANCIS DUKE OF BEDFORD.

This diſtinguiſhed nobleman was born Auguſt 11, 1765; died March 2, 1802. Memoirs of his grace, and an account of his death and funeral, were given in our Magazine for March 1802.

LLOYD LORD KENYON.

Lord Kenyon was born at Gredington in Flintſhire 1733, and was the eldeſt ſon of Lloyd Kenyon, eſq. of Bryno, in the ſame county. He was initiated in the rudiments of learning at Ruthen in Denbighſhire, whence he was taken and articled to an eminent attorney at Nantwich in Cheſhire. On the expiration of his articles, his views of ambition were enlarged, and he became a member of the ſociety of Lincoln's-inn in 1754, and was called to the bar in 1761. His advancement, at the commencement of his career, was but ſlow; he was not aſſiſted by the powerful aids of connection and intereſt. He applied himſelf chiefly to the branch of conveyancing, which was not calculated to bring him into public notice; but merit, like his, was ſure of ultimate ſucceſs. He roſe gradually, and his opinion on any legal matter was conſidered as deciſive. In 1773, he married a relation of his own, Mary, the third daughter of George Kenyon of Peele; and not long after

contracted an intimacy with lord Thurlow, afterward chancellor. About this time his practice in the court of chancery was very extenſive, and he ſoon became maſter of a very conſiderable property. In 1780 he was leading counſel for lord George Gordon, a circumſtance which eſtabliſhed his reputation as an advocate; and on this occaſion the celebrated Mr. Erſkine was his ſecond, who on that day laid the foundation of his future fame. Soon after the acceſſion of the Rockingham party to power in 1782, he was appointed attorney-general, in which office he ſucceeded the late James Wallace, eſq. In politics he was a warm partizan of Mr. Pitt, and diſtinguiſhed himſelf by his ſpeeches on the ſubject of the coalition, Mr. Fox's India bill, &c. In March 1784 he was appointed maſter of the rolls, and about the ſame time was created a baronet. On the reſignation of lord Mansfield at the latter end of May 1788, he was appointed chief-juſtice of the court of king's bench, and was elevated to the peerage, by the title of lord Kenyon, baron of Gredington, in the county of Flint. In this important ſtation, his lordſhip has given general ſatisfaction, by the equity of his deciſions, by his laudable exertions to check adultery, ſeduction, gambling, and faſhionable vices, and by his uniform endeavours to diſcountenance the vile proceedings of attornies. He died at Bath, April 2, 1802. In his private life, his lordſhip was conſidered an amiable character; he was temperate and regular in his mode of living, and practiſed a rigid economy: he acquired by his profeſſional labours the ſum of 300,000 l. Lord Kenyon had iſſue by his lady three ſons; Lloyd, born in 1775, whom his father appointed filazer of the court of king's bench, and who ſince died, Sept. 15, 1800. Lord Kenyon was deeply affected by his loſs, and this circumſtance, together with the difference between him and the other judges on a point of law, is thought to have ſhortened his lordſhip's days. Secondly, George, the preſent lord Kenyon, born in 1776. And, thirdly, the honourable Thomas Kenyon, born in 1780.

Dr. DARWIN.

Eraſmus Darwin was born December 12, 1731, and died April 18, 1802. Some memoirs of the life and writings of this celebrated phyſician, philoſopher and poet, with his portrait, are given in our Magazine for February laſt.

[To be continued.]

ANECDOTES.

To the Editor of the Univerſal Magazine.

Sir,

TO confer a favour upon the unfortunate, with that delicacy of manner which makes the party who is obliging appear the obliged, is one of the moſt ſtriking proofs of genuine ſenſibility which the human mind is able to diſplay. When the ſunſhine of proſperity is unexpectedly overſhadowed, and the ſky which was once brilliant becomes overſpread with a ſable gloom, the painful tranſition renders the mind peculiarly ſuſceptible of thoſe various mortifications which poverty is deſtined to endure.

We naturally ſigh for pleaſures which have once been participated, while thoſe to which we are ſtrangers agitate not the breaſt; hence ariſes that ſuperior degree of contentment which is attached to native poverty to that which we obſerve in thoſe who unexpectedly encounter diſtreſs.

I have been led to make theſe reflections, Mr. Editor, from peruſing the anecdote which appeared in your laſt number, and think the behaviour of the worthy archbiſhop deſerves recording in letters of gold; for a mind capable of ſenſibility ſeems to enter into the delightful feelings which ſuch

a delicate action muſt have produced.

From the promiſcuous ſtyle of reading in which I am fond of indulging, I have met with various inſtances of favours unexpectedly conferred, but I never recollect one which ſo completely charmed me, as that which I have this moment peruſed. Yet as the human mind will often reject precept, and be inſtructed by example, I think benevolent modes of conduct cannot be too frequently named; I ſhall therefore beg leave to introduce a few anecdotes which may act as an incitement to the wealthy part of mankind:

"Example moves where precept fails,
"For ſermons are leſs read than tales."

Though I allow theſe anecdotes, Mr. Editor, to be inferior to that recorded in your laſt number, ſtill, as they tend to promote benevolent emotions in the mind, I flatter myſelf you will allow them a place in a publication, the deſign of which ſeems to promote the benefit as well as the amuſement of mankind.

I am, &c.

G. C. *

Anecdote of the Duchess of Newcastle.

Though the ducheſs of Newcaſtle's various literary productions have added a degree of celebrity to her illuſtrious name; yet the delicate manner in which ſhe conferred an obligation upon an indigent author, would in itſelf have been ſufficient to immortaliſe her fame.

Previous to Mr. Gray's promotion in the univerſity of Cambridge, his circumſtances were extremely confined; and, upon coming up to town, he accompanied an acquaintance to a private ſale of valuable books. Among the number was a caſe filled with a collection of the beſt claſſic authors, which Gray repeatedly looked at, and publicly admired, but told his friend in a low accent that he was not rich enough to indulge himſelf with the prize.

The ducheſs of Newcaſtle, ſtanding near him, overheard the converſation, and being acquainted with the gentleman to whom it was addreſſed, enquired the name of his friend; and, upon being made acquainted with it, inſtantly bought the book-caſe, which ſhe ſent to Mr. Gray's lodgings, with the following note.—"The ducheſs of Newcaſtle preſents her compliments to Mr. Gray, and requeſts he will do her the honour of accepting a ſmall acknowledgement for the pleaſure ſhe has derived from the peruſal of his Elegy in a Country Churchyard."

Anecdote of the Duke of Nivernois.

When the duke of Nivernois was ambaſſador in England, he was invited to ſpend ſome time in Norfolk, at lord Towſhend's country ſeat, and, not chuſing the parade of travelling in a public capacity, he mounted his horſe, attended by a groom. A violent ſtorm overtaking him, he took refuge in a ſmall parſonage, in which the hoſpitable curate dwelt, who ordered an excellent fire to be made, ſuch proviſions as the houſe afforded placed before him, and dried his dripping clothes himſelf. Completely ignorant of the rank which his gueſt bore in ſociety, he treated him with that cordial freedom which ſprings from an honeſt heart; when the duke, enquiring into the ſtate of his finances, found that he had a family to ſupport with an income of only eighty pounds, and that this he did not derive from the emoluments of his office, but that near half of it was to be aſcribed to the fatiguing employment of a ſchool.

While the ambaſſador's clothes were drying, he inſpected the apartments, and obſerved an old cheſs-board that appeared long to have been unuſed, and upon inquiring of the curate whether he could play that intereſting game, was anſwered in the affirmative, and invited to ſtay and dine. The rain continuing, the duke accepted the invitation, and the cheſs-board was reſorted to, for the purpoſe

HABITS OF THE EGYPTIAN MAMALUKES,

IN MILITARY ARRAY AND IN FULL DRESS.

of amuſing time; and though the duke fancied himſelf to be a moſt capital cheſs player, the curate beat him every game

The evening becoming calm, and the ſky clearing, the ambaſſador gratefully took his leave; but the hoſpitable reception he had met with from the curate made an indelible impreſſion upon his mind. 'Only eighty pounds a-year, and ſo much hoſpitality!' ſaid he mentally, as he purſued his way to lord Townſhend's ſeat. 'I muſt endeavour to repay the obligations I have received from this worthy curate, by trying to procure him a ſituation which his merit deſerve.'—The duke of Newcaſtle was at that time on a viſit to lord Townſhend, and to him the ambaſſador repreſented the ſituation of the curate's affairs, and requeſted the firſt living which was at his diſpoſal might be preſented to the man by whom he had been ſo hoſpitably entertained.

Several months elapſed before any one was vacant, and the benevolent clergyman remained ignorant of the rank of his gueſt, when a ſervant in a rich livery rode up to his door one morning, and delivered the following note:—'The duke of Nivernois preſents his compliments to the reverend John ——, and, as an acknowledgement for his hoſpitable entertainment, and the complete drubbing he gave him at cheſs, begs that he will accept the living of ——, worth four hundred pounds a-year, for which he only requeſts he will make an acknowledgement to the duke of Newcaſtle in the courſe of a few days.'

Private Anecdote of Lord Chesterfield.

Though the letters of this nobleman to his ſon are rather more calculated to eſtabliſh the brilliancy of his head than to prove the purity of his heart, yet ſtill he was not deſtitute of thoſe philanthropic emotions which evince a humane and benevolent mind. Having been accidentally informed that the widow of his gamekeeper was reduced to a ſtate of the utmoſt indigence, he ſent her a hare, within ſide of which was a purſe containing the ſum of fifty pounds, accompanied by the following note:—'Lord Cheſterfield is extremely ſorry to hear of Mrs. Dawſon's embarraſſments, and requeſts her acceptance of a hare; but, as he conceives the reliſh of that ſpecies of game depends much upon the ſtuffing, has, in this inſtance, taken upon himſelf the office of cook.'

COSTUME OF THE EGYPTIAN MAMELUKES.

Illuſtrated by a Plate.

THE figure on the left hand is a young Mameluke in grand coſtume; his hands, from reſpect, concealed under his long gloves, as is the caſe when his maſter ſpeaks to him; his turban is a ſhawl, his coat is of fine cloth, of various colours, but commonly yellow or purple; his veſt, which has very long ſleeves, is velvet or ſatin, and uſually ſtriped; his pantaloons are of an enormous ſize; his buſkins, of yellow leather, and his ſandels of the ſame colour. He is alſo equipped with a ſhawl, a girdle, a ſabre, a dagger, and on the left ſide a cartouch box; there is often another box worn of the ſame ſhape, which contains relics, taliſmans, old oil for wounds, or a book of the Koran; for they believe all theſe to be equally proper, to prevent or to cure the accidents of war.

The other figure repreſents a Mameluke in his war dreſs. For a deſcription of the particular weapons and accoutrements, ſee the account and a plate of them in February laſt, page 113.

WAR WITH FRANCE.

IN Conſequence of a Meſſage from his Majeſty to both Houſes of Parliament, on Monday, May 16, ſtating, that the Diſcuſſions which had ſubſiſted between his Majeſty and the French Government were terminated; the following Declaration from his Majeſty, and Papers of Correſpondence with France, were laid before Parliament on the 18th inſtant, and ordered to be taken into Conſideration on the 23d.

DECLARATION OF HIS MAJESTY.

HIS majeſty's earneſt endeavours for the preſervation of peace having failed of ſucceſs, he entertains the fulleſt confidence that he ſhall receive the ſame ſupport from his parliament and that the ſame zeal and ſpirit will be manifeſted by his people, which he has experienced on every occaſion when the honour of his crown has been attacked, or the eſſential intereſts of his dominions have been endangered.

During the whole courſe of the negociations which led to the preliminary and definitive treaties of peace between his majeſty and the French republic, it was his majeſty's ſincere deſire, not only to put an end to the hoſtilities which ſubſiſted between the two countries, but to adopt ſuch meaſures, and to concur in ſuch propoſitions, as might moſt effectually contribute to conſolidate the general tranquillity of Europe. The ſame motives by which his majeſty was actuated during the negociations for peace, have ſince invariably governed his conduct. As ſoon as the treaty of Amiens was concluded, his majeſty's courts were open to the people of France for every purpoſe of legal redreſs; all ſequeſtrations were taken off their property; all prohibitions on their trade which had been impoſed during the war were removed, and they were placed, in every reſpect, on the ſame footing with regard to commerce and intercourſe, as the inhabitants of any other ſtate in amity with his majeſty, with which there exiſted no treaty of commerce.

To a ſyſtem of conduct thus open, liberal, and friendly, the proceedings of the French government afford the moſt ſtriking contraſt. The prohibitions which had been placed on the commerce of his majeſty's ſubjects during the war have been enforced with increaſed ſtrictneſs and ſeverity; violence has been offered in ſeveral inſtances to their veſſels and their property; and, in no caſe, has juſtice been afforded to thoſe who may have been aggrieved in conſequence of ſuch acts, nor has any ſatisfactory anſwer been given to the repeated repreſentations made by his majeſty's miniſters or ambaſſador at Paris. Under ſuch circumſtances, when his majeſty's ſubjects were not ſuffered to enjoy the common advantages of peace within the territories of the French republic, and the countries dependent upon it, the French government had recourſe to the extraordinary meaſure of ſending over to this country a number of perſons for the profeſſed purpoſe of reſiding in the moſt conſiderable ſea-port towns of Great Britain and Ireland, in the character of commercial agents or conſuls. Theſe perſons could have no pretenſions to be acknowledged in that character, as the right of being ſo acknowledged, as well as all the privileges attached to ſuch a ſituation, could only be derived from a commercial treaty; and as no treaty of that deſcription was in exiſtence between his majeſty and the French republic.

There was conſequently too much reaſon to ſuppoſe, that the real object of their miſſion was by no means of a commercial nature, and this ſuſpicion was confirmed, not only by the circumſtance that ſome of them were military men, but by the actual diſcovery that ſeveral of them were furniſhed with inſtructions to obtain the ſoundings of the harbours, and to procure military ſurveys of the places where it was intended they ſhould reſide. His majeſty felt it to be his duty to prevent their departure to their reſpective places of deſtination, and repreſented to the French government the neceſſity of withdrawing them: and it cannot be denied, that the circumſtances under which they were ſent, and the inſtructions which were given to them, ought to be conſidered as deciſive indications of the diſpoſitions and intentions of the government by whom they were employed.

The conduct of the French government, with reſpect to the commercial intercouſe between the two countries, muſt therefore be conſidered as ill ſuited to a ſtate of peace, and their proceedings in their more general political relations, as well as in thoſe which immediately concern his majeſty's dominions, appear to have been altogether inconſiſtent with every principle of good faith, moderation, and juſtice.

His majeſty had entertained hopes, in conſequence of the repeated aſſurances and profeſſions of the French government, that they might have been induced to adopt a ſyſtem of policy, which, if it had not inſpired other powers with confidence, might at leaſt have allayed their jealouſies. If the French government had really appeared to be actuated by a due attention to ſuch a ſyſtem; if their diſpoſitions had proved to be eſſentially pacific, allowances would have been made for the ſituation in which a new government muſt be placed after ſo dreadful and extenſive a convulſion as that which has been produced by the French revolution. But his majeſty has unfortunately had too much reaſon to obſerve and to lament that the ſyſtem of violence, aggreſſion, and aggrandiſement, which characteriſed the proceedings of the different governments of France during the war, has been continued with as little diſguiſe ſince its termination. They have continued to keep a French army in Holland againſt the will, and in defiance of the remonſtrances of the Batavian government, and in repugnance to the letter of three ſolemn treaties. They have, in a period of peace, invaded the territory and violated the independence of the Swiſs nation, in defiance of the treaty of Luneville, which had ſtipulated the independence of their territory, and the right of the inhabitants to chooſe their own form of government. They have annexed to the dominions of France, Piedmont, Parma, and Placentia, and the iſland of Elba, without allotting any proviſion to the king of Sardinia, whom they have deſpoiled of the moſt valuable part of his territory, though they were bound, by a ſolemn engagement to the emperor of Ruſſia, to attend to his intereſts and to provide for his eſtabliſhment. It may, indeed, with truth be aſſerted, that the period which has elapſed ſince the concluſion of the definitive treaty, has been marked with one continued ſeries of aggreſſion, violence, and inſult on the part of the French government.

In the month of October laſt, his majeſty was induced, in conſequence of the earneſt ſolicitation of the Swiſs nation, to make an effort, by a repreſentation to the French government, to avert the evils which were then impending over that country. This repreſentation was couched in the moſt temperate terms: and meaſures were taken by his majeſty for aſcertaining, under the circumſtances which then exiſted, the real ſituation and wiſhes of the Swiſs cantons, as well as the ſentiments of the other cabinets of Europe. His majeſty learned, however, with the utmoſt regret, that no diſpoſition to counteract theſe repeated infractions of treaties and acts of violence was manifeſted by any of the powers moſt immediately intereſted in preventing them; and his majeſty therefore felt that, with reſpect to theſe objects, his ſingle efforts could not be expected to produce any conſiderable advantage to thoſe in whoſe favour they might be exerted.

It was about this time that the French government firſt diſtinctly advanced the principle, that his majeſty had no right to complain of the conduct, or to interfere with the proceedings of France, on any point which did not form a part of the ſtipulations of the treaty of Amiens. That treaty was unqueſtionably founded upon the ſame principle as every other antecedent treaty or convention, on the aſſumption of the ſtate of poſſeſſion and of engagements ſubſiſting at the time of its concluſion; and if that ſtate of poſſeſſion and of engagements is materially affected by the voluntary act of any of the parties, ſo as to prejudice the condition on which the other party has entered into the contract, the change, ſo made, may be conſidered as operating virtually as a breach of the treaty itſelf, and as giving the party aggrieved a right to demand ſatisfaction or compenſation for any ſubſtantial difference which ſuch acts may have effected in their relative ſituations; but whatever may be the principle on which the treaty is to be conſidered as founded, there is indiſputably a *General Law of Nations*, which, though liable to be limited, explained, or reſtrained by *Conventional Law*, is antecedent to it, and is that law or rule of conduct to which all ſovereigns and ſtates have been accuſtomed to appeal, where conventional law is admitted to have been ſilent. The treaty of Amiens, and every other treaty, in providing for the objects to which it is particularly directed, does not therefore aſſume or imply an indifference to all other objects which are not ſpecified in its ſtipulations, much leſs does it adjudge them to be of a nature to be left to the will and caprice of the violent and the powerful. The juſtice of the cauſe alone is a ſufficient ground to warrant the interpoſition of any of the powers of Europe in the differences which may ariſe between other ſtates, and the application and extent of that juſt interpoſition is to be determined ſolely by conſiderations of prudence. Theſe principles can admit of no diſpute; but if the new and extraordinary pretenſion advanced by the

French government, to exclude his majeſty from any right to interfere with reſpect to the concerns of other powers, unleſs they made a ſpecific part of the ſtipulations of the treaty of Amiens, was that which it was poſſible to maintain, thoſe powers would have a right, at leaſt, to claim the benefit of this principle, in every caſe of difference between the two countries. The indignation of all Europe muſt ſurely then be excited by the declarations of the French government, that, in the event of hoſtilities, theſe very powers who were no parties to the treaty of Amiens, and who were not allowed to derive any advantage from the remonſtrances of his majeſty in their behalf, are nevertheleſs to be made the victims of a war which is alledged to ariſe out of the ſame treaty, and are to be ſacrificed in a conteſt which they not only have not occaſioned, but which they have had no means whatever of preventing.

His majeſty judged it moſt expedient, under the circumſtances which then affected Europe, to abſtain from a recurrence to hoſtilities on account of the views of ambition and acts of aggreſſion manifeſted by France on the continent; yet an experience of the character and diſpoſitions of the French government could not fail to impreſs his majeſty with a ſenſe of the neceſſity of increaſed vigilance in guarding the rights and dignity of his crown, and in protecting the intereſts of his people.

While his majeſty was actuated by theſe ſentiments, he was called upon by the French government to evacuate the iſland of Malta. His majeſty had manifeſted, from the moment of the ſignature of the Definitive Treaty, an anxious diſpoſition to carry into full effect the ſtipulations of the treaty of Amiens relative to that iſland. As ſoon as he was informed that an election of a Grand Maſter had taken place, under the auſpices of the emperor of Ruſſia, and that it had been agreed by the different priories aſſembled at St. Peterſburgh to acknowledge the perſon whom the court of Rome ſhould ſelect out of thoſe who had been named by them to be Grand Maſter of the order of St. John, his majeſty propoſed to the French government, for the purpoſe of avoiding any difficulties which might ariſe in the execution of the arrangement, to acknowledge that election to be valid: and when, in the month of Auguſt, the French government applied to his majeſty to permit the Neapolitan troops to be ſent to the iſland of Malta, as a preliminary meaſure for preventing any unneceſſary delay, his majeſty conſented without heſitation to this propoſal, and gave directions for the admiſſion of the Neapolitan troops into the iſland. His majeſty had thus ſhewn his diſpoſition not only to throw no obſtacle in the way of the execution of the treaty, but, on the contrary, to facilitate the execution of it by every means in his power. His majeſty cannot, however, admit, that at any period ſince the concluſion of the treaty of Amiens the French government have had a right to call upon him, in conformity to the ſtipulations of that treaty, to withdraw his forces from the iſland of Malta. At the time when this demand was made by the French government, ſeveral of the moſt important ſtipulations of the arrangement reſpecting Malta remained unexecuted: the election of a Grand Maſter had not been carried into effect. The tenth article had ſtipulated that the independence of the iſland ſhould be placed under the guarantee and protection of Great Britain, France, Auſtria, Ruſſia, Spain, and Pruſſia. The emperor of Germany had acceded to the guarantee, but only on condition of a like acceſſion on the part of the other powers ſpecified in the article. The emperor of Ruſſia had refuſed his acceſſion, except on the condition that the Malteſe langue ſhould be abrogated; and the king of Pruſſia had given no anſwer whatever to the application which had been made to him to accede to the arrangement. But the fundamental principle, upon the exiſtence of which depended the execution of the other parts of the article, had been defeated by the changes which had taken place in the conſtitution of the order ſince the concluſion of the treaty of peace. It was to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem that his majeſty was, by by the firſt ſtipulation of the tenth article, bound to reſtore the iſland of Malta. The order is defined to conſiſt of thoſe langues which were in exiſtence at the time of the concluſion of the treaty: the three French langues having been aboliſhed, and a Malteſe langue added to the inſtitution. The order conſiſted, therefore, at that time, of the following langues, viz. the langues of Arragon, Caſtile, Germany, Bavaria, and Ruſſia. Since the concluſion of the Definitive Treaty, the langues of Arragon and Caſtile have been ſeparated from the order by Spain, a part of the Italian langue has been aboliſhed by the annexation of Piedmont and Parma to France. There is ſtrong reaſon to believe that it has been in contemplation to ſe-

queſtrate the property of the Bavarian langue, and the intention has been avowed of keeping the Ruſſian langues within the dominions of the emperor.

Under theſe circumſtances the order of St. John cannot now be conſidered as that body to which, according to the ſtipulations of the treaty, the iſland was to be reſtored; and the funds indiſpenſably neceſſary for its ſupport, and for the maintenance of the independance of the iſland, have been nearly, if not wholly, ſequeſtered. Even if this had ariſen from circumſtances which it was not in the power of any of the contracting parties to the treaty to controul, his majeſty would nevertheleſs have had a right to defer the evacuation of the iſland by his forces, until ſuch time as an equivalent arrangement had been concluded for the preſervation of the independance of the order and of the iſland. But if theſe changes have taken place in conſequence of any acts of the other parties to the treaty; if the French government ſhall appear to have proceeded upon a ſyſtem of rendering the order whoſe independence they had ſtipulated, incapable of maintaining that independance, his majeſty's right to continue in the occupation of the iſland, under ſuch circumſtances, will hardly be conteſted. It is indiſputable that the revenues of the two Spaniſh languages have been withdrawn from the order by his catholic majeſty; a part of the Italian langue has in fact been aboliſhed by France, through the unjuſt annexation of Piedmont and Parma, and Placentia, to the French territory. The elector of Bavaria has been inſtigated by the French government to ſequeſtrate the property of the order within his territories; and it is certain that *they* have not only ſanctioned but encouraged the idea of the propriety of ſeparating the Ruſſian langues from the remainder of the order.

As the conduct of the governments of France and Spain have, therefore, in ſome inſtances directly, and in others indirectly, contributed to the changes which have taken place in the order, and thus deſtroyed its means of ſupporting its independence, it is to thoſe governments, and not to his majeſty, that the non-execution of the tenth article of the treaty of Amiens muſt be aſcribed.

Such would be the juſt concluſion if the tenth article of that treaty were conſidered as an arrangement by itſelf. It muſt be obſerved, however, that this article forms a part only of a treaty of peace, the whole of which is connected together, and the ſtipulations of which muſt, upon a principle common to all treaties, be conſtrued as having a reference to each other.

His majeſty was induced by the treaty of peace to conſent to abandon, and to reſtore to the order of St. John the iſland of Malta, on condition of its independence and neutrality. But a further condition, which muſt neceſſarily be ſuppoſed to have had conſiderable influence with his majeſty in inducing him to make ſo important a conceſſion, was the acquieſcence of the French government in an arrangement for the ſecurity of the Levant, by the eighth and ninth articles in the treaty, ſtipulating the integrity of the Turkiſh empire, and the independence of the Ionian iſlands. His majeſty has, however, ſince learnt, that the French government have entertained views hoſtile to both theſe objects; and that they have even ſuggeſted the idea of a partition of the Turkiſh empire. Theſe views muſt now be manifeſt to all the world, from the official publication of the report of colonel Sebaſtiani; from the conduct of that officer, and of the other French agents in Egypt, Syria, end the Ionian iſlands, and from *the diſtinct admiſſion of the Firſt Conſul himſelf, in his communication with lord Whitworth.* His majeſty was, therefore, warranted in conſidering it to be the determination of the French government to violate thoſe articles of the treaty of peace, which ſtipulated for the integrity and independence of the Turkiſh empire, and of the Ionian iſlands, and conſequently he would not have been juſtified in evacuating the iſland of Malta, without receiving ſome other ſecurity, which might equally provide for theſe important objects. His majeſty accordingly feels that he has an inconteſtable claim, in conſequence of the conduct of France ſince the treaty of peace, and with reference to the objects which made part of the ſtipulations of that treaty, to refuſe, under the preſent circumſtances, to relinquiſh the poſſeſſion of the iſland of Malta.

Yet notwithſtanding this right ſo clear and ſo unqueſtionable, the alternative preſented by the French government to his majeſty, in language the moſt peremptory and menacing was the *evacuation of Malta, or the renewal of war.*

If the views of ambition and aggrandiſement, which have thus been manifeſted by the French government ſince the concluſion of the treaty of peace, have in ſo very particular a manner attracted the attention of his majeſty, it has been equally impoſſible for him not to feel, and not to notice, the re-

peated indignities which have been offered by that government to his crown, and to his people.

The report of colonel Sebaſtiani contains the moſt unwarrantable inſinuations and charges againſt his majeſty's government, againſt the officer who commanded his forces in Egypt, and againſt the Britiſh army in that quarter. This paper cannot be conſidered as the publication of a private individual; it has been avowed, and indeed bears evidence upon the face of it, that it is the official report of an accredited agent, publiſhed by the authority of the government to which it was addreſſed, who thereby have given it their expreſs ſanction.

This report had been publiſhed a very ſhort time, when another indignity was offered to this country in the communication of the firſt conſul of France to the legiſlative body. In this communication he preſumes to affirm, in the character of chief magiſtrate of that country, *that Great Britain cannot ſingly contend againſt the power of France*; an aſſertion as unfounded as it is indecent, diſproved by the events of many wars, and by none more than by thoſe of the war which has been recently concluded. Such an aſſertion, advanced in the moſt ſolemn official act of a government, and thereby meant to be avowed to all the powers of Europe, can be conſidered in no other light than as a defiance publicly offered to his majeſty, and to a brave and powerful people, who are both willing and able to defend his juſt rights, and thoſe of their country, againſt every inſult and aggreſſion.

The conduct of the firſt conſul to his majeſty's ambaſſador at his audience, in preſence of the miniſters of moſt of the ſovereigns and ſtates of Europe, furniſhes another inſtance of provocation on the part of the French government, which it would be improper not to notice on the preſent occaſion. and the ſubſequent explanation of this tranſaction may be conſidered as having the effect of aggravating inſtead of palliating the affront.

At the very time when his majeſty was demanding ſatisfaction and explanation on ſome of the points abovementioned, the French miniſter at Hamburgh endeavoured to obtain the inſertion in a Hamburgh paper of a moſt groſs and opprobrious libel againſt his majeſty, and when difficulties were made reſpecting the inſertion of it, he availed himſelf of his *official character of miniſter of the French republic*, to require the publication of it by order of his government in the Gazette of the ſenate of that town. With this requiſition ſo made, the ſenate of Hamburgh were induced to comply; and thus has the independence of that town been violated, and a free ſtate made the inſtrument, by the menace of the French government, of propagating throughout Europe, upon their authority, the moſt offenſive and unfounded calumnies againſt his majeſty and his government. His majeſty might add to this liſt of indignities, the requiſition which the French government have repeatedly urged, that the laws and conſtitution of his country ſhould be changed relative to the Liberty of the Preſs. His majeſty might likewiſe add the calls which the French government have on ſeveral occaſions made upon him to violate the laws of hoſpitality with reſpect to perſons who had found an aſylum within his dominions, and againſt whoſe conduct no charge whatever has at any time been ſubſtantiated. It is impoſſible to reflect on theſe different proceedings, and the courſe which the French government have thought proper to adopt reſpecting them, without the thorough conviction that they are not the effect of accident; but that they form a part of a ſyſtem which has been adopted for the purpoſe of degrading, vilifying, and inſulting his majeſty and his government.

Under all theſe inſults and provocations, his majeſty, not without a due ſenſe of his dignity, has proceeded with every degree of temper and moderation to obtain ſatisfaction and redreſs, while he has neglected no means conſiſtent with his honour and the ſafety of his dominions, to induce the government of France to concede to him, what is, in his judgment, abſolutely neceſſary for the future tranquillity of Europe. His efforts in this reſpect have proved abortive, and he has therefore judged it neceſſary to order his ambaſſador to leave Paris. In having recourſe to this proceeding, it has been his majeſty's object to put an end to the fruitleſs diſcuſſions which have too long ſubſiſted between the two governments, and to cloſe a period of ſuſpenſe peculiarly injurious to the ſubjects of his majeſty.

But though the provocations which his majeſty has received might entitle him to larger claims than thoſe which he has advanced, yet, anxious to prevent calamities which might thus be extended to every part of Europe, he is ſtill willing, as far as is conſiſtent with his own honour, and the intereſts of his people, to afford every facility to any juſt and honourable arrange-

ment, by which ſuch evils may be averted. He has, therefore, no difficulty in declaring to all Europe, that notwithſtanding all the changes which have taken place ſince the treaty of peace, notwithſtanding the extenſion of the power of France, in repugnance to that treaty, and to the ſpirit of peace itſelf, his majeſty will not avail himſelf of theſe circumſtances, to demand in compenſation all that he is entitled to require, but will be ready to concur, even now, in an arrangement by which ſatisfaction ſhall be given to him, for the indignities which have been offered to his crown and to his people, and ſubſtantial ſecurity afforded againſt further encroachments on the part of France.

His majeſty has thus diſtinctly and unreſervedly ſtated the reaſons of thoſe proceedings to which he has found himſelf compelled to reſort. He is actuated by no diſpoſition to interfere in the internal concerns of any other ſtate; by no projects of conqueſt and aggrandizement; but ſolely by a ſenſe of what is due to the honour of his crown, and the intereſts of his people, and by an anxious deſire to obſtruct the further progreſs of a ſyſtem, which, if not reſiſted, may prove fatal to every part of the civilized world.

LIST OF PAPERS RELATIVE TO THE DISCUSSIONS BETWEEN THIS COUNTRY AND FRANCE.

No. 1.—TRANSLATION.

My Lord, London, May 23, 1802.

The 10th article of the treaty of Amiens, which fixes the new organization of the order of Malta, having preſcribed various meaſures, to the execution of which it is neceſſary that the two principal contracting powers ſhould concur, the firſt conſul has named general Vial as miniſter plenipotentiary to the order and iſland of Malta, for the purpoſe of concerting with the perſon whom his Britannic majeſty ſhall appoint for that purpoſe, reſpecting the execution of the arrangements agreed upon in the late treaty. General Vial will ſet out on his deſtination as ſoon as your excellency ſhall have informed me of his majeſty's intentions, and of the choice he may make.

I have the honour to be, &c.

OTTO.

No. 2.

Sir, Downing-ſtreet, May 24.

In anſwer to your letter of yeſterday, in which you communicate to me the nomination by the firſt conſul, of general Vial to be miniſter plenipotentiary of the French republic, to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem; I have the honour to inform you that the king has been pleaſed to appoint ſir Alexander Ball to be his majeſty's miniſter to the order. Sir Alexander Ball will ſhortly proceed to Malta, and will be inſtructed to concert with general Vial the neceſſary meaſures for carrying into effect the arrangements relative to that iſland, which are ſtipulated in the 10th article of the definitive treaty of peace.

I have the honour to be, &c.

M. Otto, &c. HAWKESBURY.

No. 3.

Extract of a Diſpatch from Lord St. Helen's to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated St. Peterſburgh, April 23.

I hope very ſoon to be enabled to rediſpatch your lordſhip's laſt meſſenger with the anſwer of this government to the communications which I have made to them, in obedience to his majeſty's commands, reſpecting the 10th article of the treaty of Amiens. In the mean time I muſt not conceal from your lordſhip, that there is great reaſon to fear that his imperial majeſty will decline taking part in the propoſed joint guaranty of the poſſeſſions and new conſtitution of the order of Malta.

No. 4.

Extract of a Diſpatch from Lord St. Helen's to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated Peterſburgh, May 7.

I have reaſon to hope that the firſt impreſſions that had been produced here by certain parts of the arrangement relative to Malta, have been removed; and that his imperial majeſty may even be ultimately inclined to guaranty the whole of that arrangement; provided that the ſteps which have been taken toward the election of a new grand maſter, according to the mode ſuggeſted by this court, be conſidered as fulfilling what is required on that head by the latter part of the paragraph of the 10th article of the treaty of Amiens; and conſequently that no new election for that office is to take place in the manner pointed out by the former part of the ſame ſtipulation.

No. 5.

Sir, Downing-ſtreet, June 5.

I informed you in my diſpatch, No. 10, that M. Otto had made an official communication to me, that general Vial was appointed by the firſt conſul miniſter plenipotentiary to the order of St. John of Jeruſalem. Sir Alexander Ball has been in conſequence inveſted with the ſame character by his majeſty. He will proceed im-

mediately to Malta, and he will receive inſtructions to concert with general Vial the beſt means of carrying into complete effect the ſtipulations contained in the 10th article of the definitive treaty. By the paragraph marked No. 1, in that article, it is ſtipulated:

"The knights of the order, whoſe langues ſhall continue to ſubſiſt after the exchange of the ratifications of the preſent treaty, are invited to return to Malta as ſoon as that exchange ſhall have taken place: they ſhall there form a general chapter, and ſhall proceed to the election of a grand maſter, to be choſen from among the natives of thoſe nations which preſerve langues, if no ſuch election ſhall have been already made ſince the exchange of the ratifications of the preliminary articles of peace."

The object of this paragraph was, that in the event of an election having taken place ſubſequent to the exchange of the ratifications of the preliminary articles of peace, and antecedent to the concluſion of the definitive treaty, that election ſhould be conſidered as valid; and though no mention is made in the article of the proclamation of the emperor of Ruſſia ſoon after his acceſſion to the throne, by which the knights of the order were invited to aſſemble, and to proceed to the election of a grand maſter, the ſtipulation in queſtion evidently referred to the contingency of an election taking place on the continent, in conſequence of that proclamation.

You will inform the French government, that his majeſty is ready to conſider the election which has taken place at St. Peterſburgh, under the auſpices of the emperor of Ruſſia, to be valid, according to the ſtipulation in the 10th article.

His majeſty has no other object in the whole of this tranſaction, than that the 10th article of the treaty may be fairly executed; and that the arrangement may be carried into complete execution with as little difficulty as poſſible.

As the 13th paragraph in the 10th article ſtipulates that the governments of Auſtria, Ruſſia, and Pruſſia, ſhould be invited to accede to the arrangements reſpecting Malta, it is deſirable that the French government ſhould inſtruct, without delay, their ambaſſadors or miniſters at Vienna, Peterſburgh, and Berlin, to make, conjointly with his majeſty's miniſters at thoſe courts, an official communication, deſiring the acceſſion of thoſe powers to the arrangements relative to Malta in the definitive treaty; by which it is provided, that that the independence of the iſland and the other ſtipulations, ſhall be under the guarantee of thoſe powers, in conjunction with his majeſty, the French government, and the king of Spain.

I have the honour to be, &c.

HAWKESBURY.

A. Merry, eſq. &c.

No. 6.

Extract of a Diſpatch from Anthony Merry, Eſq. to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated Paris, June 17, 1802.

I have now the honour to tranſmit to your lordſhip, incloſed, copy of an anſwer which reached me laſt night (though dated eight days back), from the French miniſter, to the note verbale which I delivered to him, containing his majeſty's propoſitions reſpecting the execution of ſome points of the arrangements relative to Malta, contained in the 10th article of the definitive treaty of peace. You will find the entire acquieſcence of this government to thoſe propoſitions, expreſſed in a very ſatisfactory manner.

(Incloſure referred to in No. 6.)

His Britannic majeſty's miniſter plenipotentiary has the honour to tranſmit herewith to citizen Talleyrand, miniſter for the foreign affairs of the French republic, the 'Note verbale' of the communication he has been ordered to make to him by his government, who are deſirous that the propoſals it contains may be acceptable to the French government; and they may be aſſured, that the Britiſh government, in making theſe propoſals, have no other object in view than to facilitate, in the eaſieſt manner, the execution of the treaty of Amiens, and to act in this reſpect in perfect harmony with the French government.

Mr. Merry has the honour to renew, on this occaſion, the aſſurances of his high conſideration for M. Talleyrand.

(Signed) ANTHONY MERRY.

Paris, 8th June, 1802.

The citizen miniſter for foreign affairs will find incloſed a liſt of ſuffrages obtained from ſeveral priories of the order of St. John of Jeruſalem, for the election of a grand maſter, which has been received from St. Peterſburgh by the Britiſh government, with the notice that theſe priories have agreed among themſelves, that his holineſs the pope ſhall ſelect (pro hac vice) from among the candidates therein ſpecified, the perſon who is to fill the poſt of grand maſter.

His Britannic majeſty, on his part, is willing to conſider an election ſo made as

valid, according to the ſtipulations of the 10th article of the treaty of Amiens.

His majeſty therefore is ready to acknowledge, in quality of grand maſter, the perſon whom the pope ſhall think proper to fix upon, from among the names contained in that liſt.

His majeſty has no other end in view than this, than to ſee the 10th article of the treaty of Amiens duly fulfilled, and the arrangement it contains executed with as little difficulty as poſſible.

It is ſtipulated by the 13th paragraph of the ſame article, that the Auſtrian, Ruſſian, and Pruſſian governments, ſhall be ſolicited to accede to the ſaid arrangement.

The Britiſh government is of opinion, that it might be proper for that of France to ſend, without delay, inſtructions to their miniſters at Vienna, Peterſburgh, and Berlin, to make, conjointly with his Britannic majeſty's miniſters, a communication to thoſe powers, in which they ſhould be invited to accede to the arrangement reſpecting Malta, by which the independence of the iſland, and the other ſtipulations relative thereto, are placed under the protection and guarantee of thoſe powers, conjointly with their Britannic and catholic majeſties, and the French republic.

TRANSLATION.

The underſigned miniſter for foreign affairs has the honour to tranſmit to M. Merry, his Britannic majeſty's miniſter plenipotentiary, his anſwer to the note verbale which he addreſſed to him on the eighth Prairial. He doubts not that his majeſty's miniſters will ſee in this anſwer a new proof of the conſtant diſpoſitions of the firſt conſul to come to an agreement with the Engliſh government, for the ſecuring and facilitating the execution of the reſpective clauſes of the treaty which has re-eſtabliſhed peace between the two ſtates.

The underſigned has the honour to renew to M. Merry the aſſurance of his high conſideration.

(Signed) CHA. MAU TALLEYRAND.

Paris, 20th Prairial, year 10.

[The miniſter for foreign affairs of the French republic has received the communication which has been made to him by his Britannic majeſty's miniſter plenipotentiary, of the liſt of the candidates nominated by the votes of the different priories to the grand maſterſhip of the order of Malta; and he has ſubmitted to the firſt conſul the propoſal concerted between the priories of the order, and approved by his Britannic majeſty, of ſubmitting (pro hac vice) to his holineſs, the choice among the propoſed candidates.

The firſt conſul has no other object, in whatever relates to the order of Malta, than to ſee the 10th article of the treaty of Amiens duly executed, and to remove all the obſtacles which might render that execution tardy or difficult. He moreover deſires equally with his Britannic majeſty, that France and England ſhould act in concert, in order the better to ſecure the independence and the organization of the order of Malta. He therefore conſents that the choice of its grand maſter, from the candidates propoſed by the votes of the priories, ſhould for this time be ſubmitted to his holineſs.

As to the 13th paragraph of the ſame article, reſpecting the acceſſion of the powers, the firſt conſul thinks with his Britannic majeſty, that the powers ſhould be invited to give their conſent to the arrangements agreed upon; and the French miniſters at the courts of Auſtria, Ruſſia, and Pruſſia, ſhall conſequently receive orders to take, conjointly with his Britannic majeſty's miniſters, the neceſſary ſteps for obtaining the acceſſion provided by the 10th article of the treaty of Amiens.]

Paris, 10th Prairial, year 10.

No. 7.

My Lord, Paris, June 4, 1802,

I had occaſion to ſee M. Talleyrand yeſterday afternoon, for the purpoſe of introducing to him, by appointment, ſome Engliſh gentlemen, previous to their preſentation to day to the firſt conſul.

Having gone firſt alone into the miniſter's cabinet, he ſaid, that he had been directed by general Bonaparte, to repreſent to me ſeveral circumſtances which ſtood very much in the way of that perfect reconciliation and good underſtanding between the two countries and their governments, which it was the firſt conſul's ſincere wiſh to ſee re-eſtabliſhed, in order that ſuch obſtacles might be removed before the arrival in London of the French ambaſſador; becauſe although the circumſtances in queſtion had already produced a very diſagreeable effect, while only M. Otto, as miniſter, had to witneſs them, they would acquire a great addition of force if they ſhould ſtill exiſt when the ambaſſador ſhould be preſent; and ſince the firſt conſul had given orders for general Andreoſſi to proceed to his deſtination with as little delay as poſſible, he wiſhed that I ſhould take an early opportunity to give an account to your lordſhip, of the obſervations he was charged to make to me.

After a preface to this effect, M. Talleyrand proceeded to ſtate to me, that the

accounts which M. Otto had tranſmitted of the diſguſt and inconvenience which he could not but feel and experience at meeting frequently at his majeſty's court, and at other places, the French princes, and ſome French perſons ſtill decorated with the inſignia of French orders which no longer exiſted; and at ſeeing the countenance and ſupport which continued to be given in England, to what he termed the ci-devant French biſhops, as well as to other perſons (he here mentioned Georges) inimical to the preſent government of France, had affected ſo ſtrongly the firſt conſul, and were in fact ſo calculated to prevent that ſyſtem of cordiality which he was anxious to ſee eſtabliſhed, that it was incumbent upon him to expreſs his wiſh, that his majeſty's government might be diſpoſed to remove out of the Britiſh dominions, all the French princes and their adherents, together with the French biſhops and other French individuals whoſe political principles and conduct muſt neceſſarily occaſion great jealouſy to the French government. He continued to obſerve, that the protection and favour which all the perſons in queſtion continued to meet with, in a country ſo cloſe a neighbour to France, muſt alone be always conſidered as an encouragement to the diſaffected here, even without thoſe perſons themſelves being guilty of any acts tending to foment freſh diſturbances in this country; but that the government here poſſeſſed proofs of the abuſe which they were now making of the protection which they enjoyed in England, and of the advantage they were taking of the vicinity of their ſituation to France, by being really guilty of ſuch acts, ſince ſeveral printed papers had lately been intercepted, which it was known they had ſent, and cauſed to be circulated in France, and which had for object, to create an oppoſition to the government. I cannot, my lord, do better than refer you to what you will have read in the French official paper of the day before yeſterday, under the article of Paris, for the exact text of M. Talleyrand's diſcourſe upon this ſubject; which he concluded by ſaying, that he thought the reſidence of Louis XVIII. was now the proper place for that of the reſt of the family, and that I might add this ſuggeſtion in my report to your lordſhip.

I anſwered the French miniſter, that without any reference to you, I could aſſure him, that the practices of the French reſiding in England, of which he complained, had not been encouraged, nor would be countenanced by his majeſty's government, which was as ſincerely diſpoſed to cultivate harmony and a good underſtanding between the two countries, as he had repreſented the firſt conſul to be; but that I could by no means ſay how far they would be diſpoſed to adopt the meaſures which he had intimated it to be general Bonaparte's wiſh that they ſhould purſue, in order to remove ſo effectually, every thing which might not perhaps be conſidered equally by them, as giving juſt cauſe of offence or jealouſy to France.

M. Talleyrand did not rejoin upon the matter, but aſked me when I propoſed writing. Upon my replying I ſhould loſe no time, he ſaid, that if I ſhould write as to day, he would avail himſelf of the opportunity to convey a letter to M. Otto.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) A. MERRY.

The right hon. lord Hawkeſbury, &c.

No. 8.

Sir, Downing-ſtreet, June 10, 1802.

Your diſpatches of the 4th inſtant were received on Monday night, and have been laid before the king.

The account given in that diſpatch of the converſation which paſſed on the 3d inſtant, between you and M. Talleyrand, reſpecting the French princes and their adherents, would have afforded here conſiderable ſurpriſe if his majeſty's government had not in ſome degree been prepared for it by information which had been previouſly received: from the manner, however, in which this ſubject has been mentioned to you, it is important that you ſhould take a proper opportunity to explain, candidly and fairly, to the French government, the line of conduct which his majeſty feels it to be his duty to purſue in this very delicate buſineſs. His majeſty would certainly conſider it inconſiſtent with both the letter and ſpirit of the treaty of peace, between him and the French republic, to encourage or countenance any projects that might be hoſtile to the preſent government of France. He is ſincerely deſirous that the peace which has been concluded may be permanent, and may lead to the eſtabliſhment of a ſyſtem of good underſtanding and harmony between the two countries. With theſe ſentiments he is diſpoſed to employ all the means in his power to guard againſt any circumſtance which can have the effect of diſturbing the tranquillity that has been ſo happily reſtored; and he certainly expects that all foreigners who may reſide within his dominions, ſhould not only hold a

conduct conformable to the laws of the country, but ſhould abſtain from all acts which may be hoſtile to the government of any country with which his majeſty may be at peace. As long, however, as they conduct themſelves according to theſe principles, his majeſty would feel it inconſiſtent with his dignity, with his honour, and with the common laws of hoſpitality, to deprive them of that protection which individuals reſident in his dominions can only forfeit by their own miſconduct. The greater part of the perſons to whom alluſion has been made in M. Talleyrand's converſation with you, are living in retirement, and his majeſty has no reaſon whatever to ſuppoſe, that ſince the concluſion of peace, they have availed themſelves of their reſidence in this country to promote any deſigns injurious to the government of France.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

Anthony Merry, eſq. &c.

No. 9.

My Lord, Paris, June 17.

I have the honour to acquaint your lordſhip, that I have executed the inſtructions given me by your ſecret and confidential diſpatch (No. 14), in conſequence of the communication from M. Talleyrand, which I tranſmitted in my No. 23, reſpecting the reſidence of the French princes, and other French perſons, in his majeſty's dominions.

In delivering my anſwer on this buſineſs to the French miniſter, I took care to expreſs, in the ſtrongeſt manner, the aſſurances which your lordſhip has authoriſed me to give of his majeſty's ſincere deſire that the peace which has happily been concluded ſhould be permanent, and that it ſhould lead to the eſtabliſhment of a ſyſtem of harmony and good underſtanding between the two countries; and that, as his majeſty's conduct would, in every reſpect, be guided by thoſe ſentiments, he of courſe would not tolerate, much leſs encourage, any proceedings on the part of perſons within his dominions, which might be hoſtile to the preſent government of France; which aſſurances might, I truſted, be ſufficient to tranquillize and ſatisfy the firſt conſul, without recurring to the meaſures which had been intimated to me, and which could not but be conſidered as inconſiſtent with his majeſty's dignity and honour, as well as with the common laws of hoſpitality, which he could not but obſerve toward foreigners within his dominions, until they ſhould have forfeited that protection by their miſconduct.

M. Talleyrand expreſſed to me in reply, that the firſt conſul had ſolicited no more than the Britiſh government itſelf had, at the time, demanded of France, when the pretender was in this country, and then had been practiſed between other governments under ſimilar circumſtances: that he could not ſee any humiliation in the meaſure he had intimated to me; that he could aſſure me it had not been ſuggeſted with any ſuch idea; and that he could only repeat, that the adoption of it would be in the higheſt degree agreeable and ſatisfactory to the firſt conſul, and be conſidered by him as the moſt convincing proof of his majeſty's diſpoſition to ſee a cordial good underſtanding eſtabliſhed between the two countries; concluding his anſwer with a requeſt that I would report it to your lordſhip.

I rejoined upon the ſubject, by obſerving to the French miniſter, that even without adverting to the ſerious conſideration of the king's dignity and honour, the feelings of the people of England were to be taken into account on the occaſion: that he muſt be ſenſible the relative ſituation, hitherto, of the two countries, eſpecially with regard to trade, afforded his majeſty's ſubjects no room to reap thoſe advantages which were common to, and which were always expected from, a ſtate of peace; and that it therefore appeared to me that the firſt conſul would equally give a proof of his diſpoſition to ſee harmony and a friendly intercourſe re-eſtabliſhed between the two nations, by not repeating his wiſh upon a matter which would operate in the ſtrongeſt manner againſt ſuch an approximation and reconciliation of ſentiments, were it even only to come to the knowledge of his majeſty's ſubjects.

I am happy, my lord, to ſay, that M. Talleyrand ſhewed no warmth, nor any very marked eagerneſs, in his manner of replying to my communication; and that our converſation on this head terminated with the laſt remarks I made to him, when he changed it to another ſubject.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) A. MERRY.

Right hon lord Hawkeſbury, &c.

No. 10.—TRANSLATION.

My Lord, Portman-ſquare, July 25.

I tranſmitted ſome time ago, to Mr. Hammond, a number of Peltier, containing the moſt groſs calumnies againſt the French government, and againſt the whole nation; and I obſerved, that I ſhould probably receive an order to demand the puniſhment of ſuch an abuſe of the preſs.—That order is actually arrived, and I can-

not conceal from you, my lord, that the reiterated insults of a small number of foreigners, assembled in London to conspire against the French government, produce the most unfavorable effects on the good understanding between the two nations. Even though the first article of the treaty of Amiens had not provided for the maintenance of that respect which two independent nations owe to each other; the general maxims of the law of nations would formally condemn so revolting an abuse of the liberty of the press. It cannot be believed that the law can give more latitude to a libellist than to any other individual, who, without declaration of war, should permit himself to violate the duties of good neighbourhood. The offence in question is so much the more serious, as its object is evidently to disturb the harmony which subsists between the two governments.

It is not to Peltier alone, but to the editor of the 'Courier Francois de Londres,' to Cobbet, and other writers who resemble them, that I have to direct the attention of his majesty's government. The perfidious and malevolent publications of these men, are in open contradiction to the principles of peace; and if it could ever enter into the mind of the French government to permit retaliation, writers would doubtless be found in France, willing to avenge their countrymen, by filling their pages with odious reflections on the most respectable persons, and on the dearest institutions of Great Britain.

The want of positive laws against these sorts of offences cannot palliate the violation of the law of nations, according to which peace should put a stop to all species of hostilities; and doubtless those which wound the honour and the reputation of a government, and which tend to cause a revolt of the people, whose interests are confided to that government, are the most apt to lessen the advantages of peace, and to keep up national resentments.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) OTTO.

To his excellency lord Hawkesbury, &c.

No. 11.

Sir, Downing-street, July 28.

I have the honour to acknowledge the receipt of your letter on the subject of the last number of Peltier. It is impossible that his majesty's government could peruse the article in question without the greatest displeasure, and without an anxious desire, that the person who published it should suffer the punishment he so justly deserves.—The calumnies, however, to which his majesty's government, and many of the best subjects in this country, are frequently exposed in the public prints, must necessarily convince all foreign governments of the difficulties which exist in a constitution like that of Great Britain, in preventing the abuse which is often unavoidably attendant on the greatest of all political benefits; and though publications of this nature are, as they certainly ought to be, by the law of England, subject to punishment, it is often difficult to prove the guilt of an individual so satisfactorily as to obtain the judgment of a court of justice; and the inconvenience which arises from prosecution, unless there is a reasonable prospect of success, is frequently sufficient to deter both the government and individuals from undertaking it. In the present case I have thought it my duty to refer the article in question to his majesty's attorney general, for his opinion whether it is or is not a libel, according to the construction of the law of England, and whether it is such a libel as he would, under all the circumstances, recommend for prosecution. As soon as I receive his report, I shall have the honour of communicating it to you.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

M. Otto, &c.

No. 12.—TRANSLATION.—NOTE.

The undersigned minister plenipotentiary of the French republic having submitted to his government the letter which his excellency lord Hawkesbury, minister and principal secretary of state of his Britannic majesty, did him the honour of writing under date of the 27th of July, is directed to offer the following observations:

If the British government tolerates censures upon the act of its administration, and the personal abuse of the most respectable men, it does not suffer even the slightest attempt against the public tranquillity, the fundamental laws of the empire, and the supreme authority which arises from them. Every nation is, moreover, at liberty to sacrifice any advantage whatever in its interior, in order to obtain another to which it attaches a higher value; but the government which does not repress the licentiousness of the press; when it may be injurious to the honour of the interests of foreign powers, would afford an opportunity for libellists to endanger the public tranquillity, or at least the good understanding that forms the basis of it; and whenever such serious injuries are continued in a regular and systematic manner, doubts must arise as to its own dispositions,

The particular laws and conſtitution of Great Britain are ſubordinate to the general principles of the laws of nations, which ſuperſede the laws of each individual ſtate. If it be a right in England to allow the moſt extenſive liberty to the preſs, it is a public right of poliſhed nations, and the bounden duty of governments to prevent, repreſs, and puniſh, every attack which might, by thoſe means, be made againſt the rights, the intereſts, and the honour of foreign powers.

This general maxim of the law of nations has never been miſtaken without paving the way for the greateſt diviſions, and has even furniſhed in England a plauſible pretext to thoſe who have written volumes to prove the neceſſity of the laſt war againſt France. Are theſe men now deſirous of preſenting to the conſular government a weapon which they have wielded with ſo much addreſs? And can they flatter themſelves that the authority which has ſigned the peace has not power to maintain it?

By the firſt article of the treaty of Amiens, the two powers agree to afford no protection, either directly or indirectly, to thoſe who ſhould cauſe prejudice to any of them.

But the greateſt of all injuries doubtleſs is, that which tends to debaſe a foreign government, or to excite within its territory civil and religious commotions; and the moſt decided of all protections, is that which places under the ſafeguard of the laws, men who ſeek not only to diſturb the political tranquillity of Europe, but even to diſſolve the firſt bonds of ſociety.

The underſigned miniſter muſt moreover obſerve, that this is not a queſtion reſpecting ſome paragraphs, which, through the inadvertence of an editor, might have been accidentally inſerted in a public print; but it is a queſtion of a deep and continued ſyſtem of defamation, directed not only againſt the chief of the French republic, but againſt all the conſtituted authorities of the republic, againſt the whole nation, repreſented by theſe libellers in the moſt odious and degrading terms. It has even been remarked, that many of theſe prints contain an appeal to the French people, againſt the government and fundamental laws of their country.

If theſe obſervations apply to the Engliſh writers, who, for theſe three months paſt, have deluged the public with the moſt perfidious and unbecoming publications, they are ſtill more applicable to a claſs of foreign calumniators, who appear to avail themſelves of the aſylum offered them in England, only for the purpoſe of the better gratifying their hatred againſt France, and undermining the foundations of peace. It is not merely by inſulting and ſeditious writings, evidently publiſhed with a view to circulation in France, but by other incendiary papers diſtributed through the maritime departments, in order to excite the evil-diſpoſed or weak inhabitants to reſiſt the execution of the concordate, that theſe implacable enemies of France continue to exerciſe hoſtilities, and to provoke the juſt indignation of the French government and people. Not a doubt exiſts of theſe writings having been compoſed and circulated by Georges, and by the former biſhops of France. Theſe men can no longer be conſidered but as rebels againſt both political and religious authority; and after their reiterated attempts to diſturb the good underſtanding between the two governments, their reſidence in England militates openly againſt the ſpirit and letter of the treaty of peace.

The meetings likewiſe which have taken place in the iſland of Jerſey, and the odious plots which are there framed, in ſpite of the repreſentations which the underſigned miniſter has already taken care to make on this ſubject, alſo demand immediate meaſures to be taken by a government, the neighbour and friend of France.

Other perſons (attached, by recollection never to be effaced, and by regrets too long foſtered, to an order of things which no longer exiſts in France) find themſelves daily implicated by the plots of thoſe who pretend to ſerve them. A ſenſe of their own reputation will without doubt lead them to avoid a focus of intrigues, with which they ought not to have the leaſt connection.

Peace happily reeſtabliſhed, the mutual deſire of the two governments to render it ſolid and laſting, and the general intereſts of humanity, require that all theſe cauſes of diſſatisfaction ſhould be done away, and that his majeſty's miniſtry ſhould, by frank and energetic meaſures, manifeſt their diſapprobation of all the attempts made to produce new diviſions.

The underſigned has in conſequence received eſpecial orders to ſolicit,

1ſt. That his majeſty's government will adopt the moſt effectual meaſures to put a ſtop to the unbecoming and ſeditious publications with which the newſpapers and other writings printed in England are filled.

2d. That the individuals mentioned in

the underſigned miniſter's letter of the 23d of July laſt, ſhall be ſent out of the iſland of Jerſey.

3d. That the former biſhops of Arras and St. Pol. de Leon, and all thoſe who, like them, under the pretext of religion, ſeek to raiſe diſturbances in the interior of France, ſhall likewiſe be ſent away.

4th. That Georges and his adherents ſhall be tranſported to Canada, according to the intention which the underſigned has been directed to tranſmit to his government at the requeſt of lord Hawkeſbury.

5th. That, in order to deprive the evil-diſpoſed of every pretext for diſturbing the good underſtanding between the two governments, it ſhall be recommended to the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, at preſent in Great Britain, to repair to Warſaw, the reſidence of the head of their family.

6th. That ſuch of the French emigrants as ſtill think proper to wear the orders and decorations belonging to the ancient government of France, ſhall be required to quit the territory of the Britiſh empire.

Theſe demands are founded upon the treaty of Amiens, and upon the verbal aſſurances that the underſigned miniſter has had the ſatisfaction to receive in the courſe of the negociations, with regard to a mutual agreement for maintaining tranquillity and good order in the two countries. In any one in particular of theſe demands does not proceed ſo immediately from the treaty concluded, it would be eaſy to juſtify it by ſtriking examples, and to prove how very attentive the Britiſh government has been in times of internal fermentation, to remove from the territory of a neighbouring power thoſe who might endanger the public tranquillity.

Whatever may be the protection which the Engliſh laws afford to native writers and to other ſubjects of his majeſty, the French government knows that foreigners do not here enjoy the ſame protection; and that the law, known by the title of the Alien Act, gives the miniſtry of his Britannic majeſty an authority which it has often exerciſed againſt foreigners whoſe reſidence was prejudicial to the intereſts of Great Britain. The firſt clauſe of this act ſtates expreſsly, that any order in council which requires a foreigner to quit the kingdom ſhall be executed under pain of impriſonment and tranſportation. There exiſts, therefore, in the miniſtry, a legal and ſufficient power to reſtrain foreigners, without having recourſe to the courts of law; and the French government, which offers on this point a perfect reciprocity, thinks it gives a new proof of its pacific intentions, by demanding that thoſe perſons may be ſent away, whoſe machinations uniformly tend to ſow diſcord between the two people. It owes to itſelf and to the nation at large, (which has made it the depoſitary of its power and of its honour) not to appear inſenſible to inſults and to plots during profound peace, which the irritation of open war could not juſtify, and it is too well acquainted with the conciliatory diſpoſitions of the Britiſh miniſtry, not to rely upon its efforts to diſperſe a faction equally the enemy of France and England.

The underſigned miniſter ſeizes this opportunity to preſent to his excellency lord Hawkeſbury, the homage of his reſpectful conſideration.

(Signed) OTTO.

London, Auguſt 17, 1802.

No. 13.

Sir, Downing-ſtreet, Aug. 28.

I ſend you the copy of a letter which I received ſome days ago from M. Otto, together with a copy of an official note incloſed in it. I have informed M. Otto, that you would receive inſtructions to enter into explanations with the French government on the ſeveral points to which it refers. It is impoſſible not to feel conſiderable ſurpriſe at the circumſtances under which it has been thought proper to preſent ſuch a note, at the ſtile in which it is drawn up, and at the complaints contained in it. Whatever may be the general diſpoſitions of the French government toward this country, ſuppoſing them to be as hoſtile as they have been at any former period, or even more ſo, it would appear ſo contrary to their intereſt to provoke a war with us at the preſent moment, that I am inclined to aſcribe their conduct, in the whole of this buſineſs, more to temper, than to any other motive; but whether their conduct is to be referred to temper or to policy, the effects of it may ſtill be the ſame; it is therefore become of the utmoſt importance that a frank explanation ſhould be made of the line of conduct which his majeſty has determined to adopt on reaſons of the nature of thoſe to which this note refers, and of the motives on which it is founded; and it is to be hoped that ſuch an explanation will have the effect of putting an end to a courſe of proceeding which can lead only to perpetual irritation between the two governments, and which might ultimately tend to the moſt ſerious conſequences.

The firſt conſideration that naturally ariſes on this tranſaction, is that of the peculiar circumſtances under which the note of M. Otto has been preſented. It cannot be denied that ſome very improper paragraphs have lately appeared in ſome of the Engliſh newſpapers againſt the government of France: it cannot be denied likewiſe, that publications of a ſtill more improper and indecent nature have made their appearance in this country, with the names of foreigners affixed to them. Under theſe circumſtances the French government would have been warranted in expecting every redreſs that the laws of this country could afford them; but as, inſtead of ſeeking it in the ordinary courſe, they have thought fit to reſort to recrimination themſelves, or at leaſt to authoriſe it in others, they could have no right to complain if their ſubſequent appeal to his majeſty had failed to produce the effect that otherwiſe would have attended it.

Whatever may have been the nature of the prior injury, they have in fact taken the law into their own hands: and what is this recrimination and retort: the paragraphs in the Engliſh newſpapers, the publications to which I have above referred, have not appeared under any authority of the Britiſh government, and are diſavowed and diſapproved of by them; but the paragraph in the Moniteur has appeared in a paper avowedly official, for which the government are therefore conſidered as reſponſible, as his majeſty's government is reſponſible for the contents of the London Gazette. And this retort is not confined to the unauthoriſed Engliſh newſpapers, or to the other publications of which complaint is now made, but is converted into, and made a pretence for a direct attack upon the government of his majeſty. His majeſty feels it beneath his dignity to any formal complaint on this occaſion; but it has been impoſſible for me to proceed to the other parts of the ſubject, without pointing your attention to the conduct of the French government in this reſpect, that you may obſerve upon it in the manner it deſerves.

The propoſitions in M. Otto's official note, are ſix in number; but may in fact be divided under two heads: the firſt, that which relates to the libels of all deſcriptions, which are alledged to be publiſhed againſt the French government; the laſt, comprehending the five complaints which relate to the emigrants reſident in this country. On the firſt, I am ſure you muſt be aware that his majeſty cannot, and never will, in conſequence of any repreſentation or any menace from a foreign power, make any conceſſion, which can be in the ſmalleſt degree dangerous to the liberty of the preſs, as ſecured by the conſtitution of this country. This liberty is juſtly dear to every Britiſh ſubject. The conſtitution admits of no previous reſtraints upon publications of any deſcription; but there exiſt judicatures, wholly independent of the executive government, capable of taking cognizance of ſuch publications as the law deems to be criminal, and which are bound to inflict the puniſhment the delinquents may deſerve; theſe judicatures may take cognizance, not only of libels againſt the government and the magiſtracy of this kingdom, but, as has been repeatedly experienced, of publication defamatory of thoſe in whoſe hands the adminiſtration of foreign governments is placed. That our government neither has nor wants any other protection than what the laws of the country afford; and though they are willing and ready to give to every foreign government all the protection againſt offences of this nature, which the principle of their laws and conſtitution will admit, they never can conſent to new-model their laws, or to change their conſtitution, to gratify the wiſhes of any foreign power. If the preſent French government are diſſatisfied with our laws on the ſubject of libels, or entertain the opinion that the adminiſtration of juſtice in our courts is too tardy and lenient, they have it in their power to redreſs themſelves, by puniſhing the venders and diſtributors of ſuch publications within their own territories, in any manner that they may think proper, and thereby preventing the circulation of them. If they think their preſent laws are not ſufficient for this purpoſe, they may enact new ones; or, if they think it expedient, they may exerciſe the right which they have of prohibiting the importation of any foreign newſpapers, or periodical publications, into the territories of the French republic. His majeſty will not complain of ſuch a meaſure, as it is not his intention to interfere in the manner in which the people or territories of France ſhould be governed: but he expects, on the other hand, that the French government will not interfere in the manner in which the government of his dominions is conducted, or call for a change in thoſe laws with which his people are perfectly ſatisfied. With reſpect to the diſtinction which appears to be drawn in M. Otto's note, between the

publications of Britiſh ſubjects and thoſe of foreigners, and the power which his majeſty is ſuppoſed to have in conſequence of the alien act, of ſending foreigners out of his dominions, it is important to obſerve that the proviſions of that act were made for the purpoſe of preventing the reſidence of foreigners, whoſe numbers and principles had a tendency to diſturb the internal peace of his own dominions, and whom the ſafety of thoſe dominions might require in many inſtances to be removed, even if their actual conduct had not expoſed them to puniſhment by law.—It does not follow that it would be a warrantable application of ſuch a law to exert its powers in the caſes of individuals ſuch as thoſe of whom complaint is now made, and particularly as they are liable to be proſecuted under the law of the land, in like manner as others have been in ſimilar caſes, at the inſtance, and upon the complaint of foreign governments.

The ſecond general head, which includes the five laſt complaints, relates to the removal of ſome of the French emigrants reſident in this country. His majeſty entertained hopes that the explanation furniſhed on this head in my diſpatch, No. 14. would have proved ſatisfactory, and would have precluded the neceſſity of any farther diſcuſſion on this ſubject. The French government have upon ſeveral occaſions reſorted on this part of the ſubject to precedent, and have particularly reſted on the demand formerly made by this country, that the perſon then called the pretender, ſhould be ſent from the French dominions. It is important that the differences between theſe two caſes ſhould be ſtated. When James the ſecond abdicated the throne, and left this country, he retired with his adherents to France: and though in the war which immediately ſucceeded that event, the French government adopted his cauſe as their own, no ſtipulation was made at the treaty of Ryſwick, that he ſhould be ſent from that country, nor was any ſubſequent demand ever made to the French government to this effect; but he was ſuffered to remain at Saint Germain, in the neighbourhood of Paris, ſurrounded by his family and friends, till the time of his death. It was not till after his demiſe, when Louis XIV. in direct violation of the treaty of Ryſwick, had acknowledged his ſon as king of Great Britain, that a different courſe of proceeding was adopted by the Britiſh government; and in the treaty of peace ſigned at Utrecht, which put an end to the war which had been carried on, on account of the Spaniſh ſucceſſion, an article was inſerted to prevent the pretender from reſiding in any part of the French dominions. The demand which was ſubſequently made for the removal of the pretender from a town which was ſituated in the centre of theſe dominions, was founded on this article of the treaty, which was in fact one of the conditions of the peace; but both the article in the treaty and the demand were confined to the pretender perſonally, and were not extended to any of his family, or to any of his adherents. After his removal, many of his adherents continued to reſide in France; many perſons reſident in this country, who were attached to the cauſe of the pretender, and had promoted the rebellion in his favour, and who were conſequently attainted for high treaſon, ſought refuge in France, and were permitted to remain there till their death, without any application ever having been made by the Britiſh government for their removal. The duke of Berwick, the natural ſon of James II. who from his principles and talents was the moſt dangerous man to the intereſts of this country and the proteſtant ſucceſſion, continued to be a general in the French armies, and though deſcended from the king, an Engliſhman and an emigrant, it was not required that he ſhould be ſent out of France. In the preſent caſe, there is no article in the treaty of peace, by which his majeſty is bound to ſend from this country any Frenchman whatever, except on account of the crimes ſpecified in the twentieth article of the definitive treaty, and in conſequence of the proofs therein required having been adduced. In the preſent caſe, it cannot be pretended that his majeſty has ever given the ſlighteſt countenance to the cauſe of the royaliſts in France againſt the preſent government, ſince the period when he acknowledged that government; and if there were not theſe important differences in the two caſes, they would be totally diſſimilar in the only remaining point; for in the caſe of the houſe of Stuart, as has been already ſtated, notwithſtanding the violence of the times, and the danger to which the proteſtant ſucceſſion was really expoſed, this ſtrong act of authority was confined to the perſon of the pretender; and the individual who muſt be recognized in that character by the French government, and whoſe caſe can alone bear any ſimilarity to the former even in this reſpect, is not, and never has been, within his majeſty's dominions. Other precedents might be

adduced on this ſubject; but it is not neceſſary to ſtate them, as the foregoing are ſufficient.

With reſpect to the complaints in detail under the ſecond head.—Upon the firſt, you may inform the French government, that the emigrants in Jerſey, many of whom had remained there ſolely on account of the cheapneſs of ſubſiſtence, had actually removed, or were removing previous to the repreſentation concerning them in M. Otto's note, and that before your explanation with M. Talleyrand can take place, there will probably not be an emigrant in the iſland.

To the ſecond complaint, which relates to the biſhops of Arras and St. Pol. de Leon, and others, his majeſty can only reply that if the facts alleged againſt them can be ſubſtantiated; if it can be proved that they have diſtributed papers on the coaſt of France, with a view of diſturbing the government, and of inducing the people to reſiſt the new church eſtabliſhment, his majeſty would think himſelf juſtified in taking all meaſures within his power for obliging them to leave the country; but ſome proof muſt be adduced of thoſe facts; and ſuch proof muſt not be that of their having in a ſingle inſtance, viz. in reply to the pope's mandate, publiſhed a vindication of their own conduct, in refuſing to conform to the new eſtabliſhment, a proceeding in which they would be juſtifiable on every principle of toleration and juſtice; but it ſhould ſhow that they have ſince availed themſelves of their ſituation in this country to excite the people of France againſt the authority of that government, whether civil or eccleſiaſtical.

On the third complaint, which reſpects the removal of Georges, and thoſe perſons ſuppoſed to be deſcribed as his adherents, M. Otto muſt have miſtaken me in what he ſuppoſes me to have ſaid on that ſubject. His majeſty is however very deſirous to obviate any cauſe of complaint or uneaſineſs with reſpect to theſe perſons; and meaſures are in contemplation, and will be taken, for the purpoſe of removing them out of his majeſty's European dominions.

On the fourth complaint reſpecting the princes of the houſe of Bourbon, I can only refer you to my former anſwer. His majeſty has no deſire that they ſhould continue to reſide in this country, if they are diſpoſed, or can be induced to quit it; but he feels it to be inconſiſtent with his honour and his ſenſe of juſtice to withdraw from them the rights of hoſpitality, as long as they conduct themſelves peaceably and quietly; and unleſs ſome charge can be ſubſtantiated of their attempting to diſturb the peace which ſubſiſts between the two governments.

With reſpect to the fifth complaint, which relates to the French emigrants wearing in this country the orders of their ancient government; there are few, if any perſons of that deſcription in this country who wear ſuch orders. It might be more proper if they all abſtained from it; but the French government could not perſiſt in expecting, that even if it were conſiſtent with law, his majeſty could be induced to commit ſo harſh an act of authority as to ſend them out of the country on ſuch an account.

I have thus ſtated to you his majeſty's ſentiments on the ſeveral points contained in M. Otto's note. You will take an early opportunity of communicating theſe ſentiments to the French government, and of accompanying them with the arguments and explanations above ſtated. And if it ſhould be deſired, and you ſhould be of opinion, that it was likely to produce any good effect, there is no objection to your putting the ſubſtance of what you ſhall have ſtated in writing, and of delivering it to the miniſter for Foreign affairs, as a memorandum of your converſation.

Upon the general tone and ſtyle of M. Otto's note, it is important to obſerve, that it is far from conciliating; and that the practice of preſenting notes of this deſcription, on any motive or ſuggeſtion of perſonal irritation, cannot fail to have the effect of indiſpoſing the two governments toward each other, inſtead of conſolidating and ſtrengthening the peace which happily ſubſiſts between them. That after a war, in which the paſſions of men have been rouſed beyond all former examples, it is natural to ſuppoſe that the diſtruſt, jealouſy, and other hoſtile feelings of individuals ſhould not immediately ſubſide, and under theſe circumſtances it appears to be both the intereſt and the duty of the two governments, by a mild and temperate conduct, gradually to allay theſe feelings, and not on the contrary to provoke and augment them by untimely irritation on their part, and by aſcribing proceedings like thoſe above noticed to cauſes to which they have no reference. His majeſty has thus fully

and frankly explained his ſentiments, and the ground of his conduct. He is ſincerely diſpoſed to adopt every meaſure for the preſervation of peace, which is conſiſtent with the honour and independence of his country, and with the ſecurity of its laws and conſtitution. But the French government muſt have formed a moſt erroneous judgment of the diſpoſition of the Britiſh nation, and of the character of its government, if they have been taught to expect that any repreſentation of a foreign power will ever induce them to conſent to a violation of thoſe rights on which the liberties of the people of this country are founded.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

A. Merry, eſq. &c.

No. 14.—TRANSLATION—NOTE.

General Vial, miniſter plenipotentiary of the republic at Malta, having ſet out for his deſtination about the 20th of July, it is to be preſumed, that he will ſoon be in a condition to enter into a concert with his Britannic majeſty's miniſter plenipotentiary on the evacuation of Malta and of its dependencies.

The three months in which this evacuation ſhould have taken place, are expired; and it being the intenion of the two governments that the execution of the treaty of Amiens ſhould experience the leaſt poſſible delay, the firſt conſul would have been deſirous that the two thouſand Neapolitans who are ready to depart, could have been tranſported at an early period to the iſland of Malta, to be in readineſs whenever the evacuation ſhall be on the point of being effected.

It appears, nevertheleſs, that Mr. Drummond, the Engliſh miniſter at Naples, has not been authoriſed by his government to facilitate this tranſport; and that the motive alleged by that miniſter was, that the ſtipulations which ought to precede the evacuation not being fulfilled, that evacuation could not yet take place.

In communicating the above details to his excellency lord Hawkeſbury, his majeſty's principal ſecretary of ſtate for the foreign department, the underſigned is directed to obſerve, that the ſending the two thouſand Neapolitans to the iſland of Malta cannot but be conſidered as a preliminary ſtep, in order to accelerate the evacuation, as ſoon as the neceſſary meaſures ſhall have been taken by the reſpective plenipotentiaries; and that it does not in any manner prevent the ſubſequent concert on the details of the evacuation, conformably to the clauſes of the treaty of Amiens.

The underſigned is moreover directed to requeſt the Britiſh miniſtry to give general inſtructions to his majeſty's plenipotentiaries at Naples, and at Malta, that the evacuation, and the other conditions of the 10th article, may be executed without obſtacle, and without theſe plenipotentiaries conceiving themſelves obliged to refer to their government on each of the ſucceſſive operations which ſhould take place.

The underſigned embraces this opportunity to preſent to his excellency lord Hawkeſbury, the homage of his reſpectful conſideration.

(Signed) OTTO.

London, Auguſt 21, 1802.

His excellency lord Hawkeſbury, &c.

No. 15.—NOTE.

The underſigned has the honour to acknowledge the receipt of M. Otto's note of the 21ſt inſtant.

When the Neapolitan government notified to Mr. Drummond, the king's miniſter at Naples, that the 2000 troops which his Sicilian majeſty had ſelected to ſerve in Malta, were ready to proceed to their deſtination, that gentleman declined taking any ſtep to facilitate their embarkation, till he ſhould receive intelligence of the arrival of ſir Alexander Ball in that iſland, and till he ſhould be informed that the commander in chief of the Britiſh forces had made ſuitable preparations for their reception. By the laſt advices from Malta it appears, that ſir Alexander Ball had arrived there on the tenth of laſt month, and that, after having conferred with general Fox upon the ſubject, he had written to Mr. Drummond, that there was no impediment whatever to the immediate reception of the Neapolitan troops, and that their quarters would be prepared accordingly; the underſigned has the honour to ſtate this to M. Otto as the moſt ſatisfactory anſwer which he can give to his note. It is probable, therefore, that the troops of his Sicilian majeſty are already embarked and on their paſſage; but to prevent the poſſibility of any unneceſſary delay or miſconception, the moſt explicit inſtructions will be immediately forwarded to Mr. Drummond on this ſubject.

With reſpect to the other points in M. Otto's note, the underſigned can only repeat what he has before ſtated to him,

that his majeſty is moſt ſincerely deſirous to ſee all the ſtipulations in the tenth article of the definitive treaty carried into effect with the utmoſt punctuality, and with the leaſt poſſible delay. With this view he takes this opportunity of obſerving to M. Otto, that by the very laſt diſpatches from the Engliſh ambaſſador at St. Peterſburgh, the French miniſter at that court had not even then received any inſtructions from his government relative to the ſteps to be taken in concert with lord St. Helen's, for inviting the emperor to become a guarantee of the proviſions and ſtipulations of the article in queſtion. The French miniſter at Berlin, was in the ſame predicament. The underſigned, therefore, requeſts that M. Otto would have the goodneſs to repreſent theſe circumſtances to his government, and to urge them, if they have not already done it, to tranſmit without delay to their miniſters at thoſe courts, the neceſſary inſtructions for bringing this part of the buſineſs to a concluſion.

The underſigned requeſts M. Otto to accept the aſſurances of his high conſideration.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

Downing-ſtreet, Auguſt 23, 1802.

No. 16.—Extract of a diſpatch from Mr. Merry to lord Hawkeſbury, dated Paris, October 3. 1802.

As ſoon as the Helvetic government had retired from Berne to Lauſanne, the partizans of the antient federative ſyſtem of the Swiſs cantons, who eſtabliſhed immediately in the former city a proviſional government, deputed a confidential to Paris, for the purpoſe of counteracting the meaſures of M. Stapfer, and of engaging the firſt conſul to ſuffer the inhabitants of Switzerland to ſettle their affairs among themſelves. He was inſtructed in any emergency to addreſs himſelf to the miniſters here of the principal powers of Europe, and to ſolicit their interference and aſſiſtance in the objects of his miſſion. He reached Paris four days ago, and had reaſon to flatter himſelf, from the reſult of an interview which he had immediately with M. Talleyrand, that the firſt conſul would put no obſtacle in the way of any arrangement which the Swiſs might agree upon among themſelves for the final ſettlement of their government; he was therefore much ſurpriſed to learn ſoon afterward, that a change had taken place in the firſt conſul's ſentiments, and his aſtoniſhment was completed when he found that the latter had taken ſo decided and ſo unfavorable a part in the buſineſs, as that which is announced by a reſolution publiſhed in yeſterday's Moniteur, (which I have the honour to tranſmit incloſed) in the form of an addreſs to the inhabitants of Switzerland.—This perſon having, beſide this public declaration, acquired ſome private information of its being the firſt conſul's intention to give the moſt immediate and vigorous effect to it, loſt no time in addreſſing a letter to the latter, in which he took the liberty of ſtating that he muſt have been deceived by falſe repreſentations, that his interference in the affairs of Switzerland, was, as he was authoriſed to ſay, entirely unſolicited by the majority, and the beſt thinking part of the inhabitants; and that he had, therefore, to intreat of him, in the moſt earneſt manner, to ſuſpend the execution of his reſolution until thoſe explanations could take place, which he truſted might be the means of preventing the immenſe effuſion of blood which would otherwiſe inevitably enſue. He at the ſame time addreſſed himſelf in the courſe of yeſterday to me, as well as to the Auſtrian and Spaniſh ambaſſadors, and to the Ruſſian and Pruſſian miniſters, (not having gained admittance to Mons. de Cobenzel, nor to M. de Markoff or Lucchefini; he afterward wrote to them) ſoliciting, in the ſtrongeſt terms, an interference (jointly, if poſſible) on their part, with the French government to endeavour to avert the impending evil. I naturally obſerved to him in anſwer, that the preſent ſtate of political relations between the great powers of Europe afforded no proſpect of his obtaining of their miniſters at Paris, to adopt a concerted meaſure in favour of the object which he had ſo much at heart, and that of courſe I could not take it individually upon myſelf, without any expreſs inſtruction from my government. He returned to me today, to acquaint me that he was not only as yet without a reply from any quarter, but had reaſon to fear that his prayer would not be liſtened to by the Auſtrian, Ruſſian, and Pruſſian miniſters; *he therefore conjured me to tranſmit them to his majeſty's government, from whom only his countrymen could have a hope of deriving any aſſiſtance in the terrible conflict which he knew they were determined to ſtand, and which would only ceaſe by the extermination of every virtuous and brave man in the country.* He then put into my hand a note which he had drawn up in a hurry, and of which I incloſe a copy. While, my lord, it was out of my power

to give him any encouragement to expect from his majeſty's government the aſſiſtance which his petition expreſſes, I have thought it my duty to loſe no time in making you acquainted with a ſtate of things which may ſhortly be attended with very important conſequences.

(Incloſure referred to in No. 16)

TRANSLATION—NOTE.

So long as Swiſſerland was occupied by the French armies, the wiſhes of the people could never be freely manifeſted. The petty revolutions which took place in the government were the mere tricks of certain factions, in which the nation at large took but a very trifling intereſt. Scarcely did Swiſſerland think herſelf independant, when ſhe was deſirous of returning to her ancient inſtitutions, rendered ſtill dearer to her by her late misfortunes, and the arbitrary acts of the government furniſhed her with the means of doing ſo. Almoſt the whole of Swiſſerland, with unexampled unanimity and moderation, ſhook off the yoke. The Cantons formed themſelves into conſtituent bodies; and twelve of the thirteen Cantons of Swiſſerland ſent their repreſentatives to the diet of Schwitz, in order there to organize a central power which might be acceptable to the neighbouring powers.

The ariſtocratical Cantons renounced their excluſive rights; the Pays de Vaud was left at liberty to form its own conſtitution, as well as Thurgovia and the other new Cantons.

The government having taken refuge at Lauſanne, was by no means ſecure there, notwithſtanding its regular troops; perhaps even at the preſent moment it no longe exiſts.

Who would not have thought that according to the ſtipulation of the treaty of Luneville, which grants independence to Swiſſerland, and the right of chooſing its own government, every thing was ſettled, and that this nation might ſee its former happineſs and tranquillity revive?

Who could have thought that the firſt conſul would have iſſued ſuch a decree as that of the 8th Vendemiare ( )?

Is an independant nation to be thus treated? Should Bonaparte perſiſt in his determination, and the other powers ſhould not interpoſe in our favour, it only remains for us either to bury ourſelves in the ruins of our houſes, although without hope of reſiſtance, exhauſted as we are by the coloſſus who is about to overwhelm us, or to debaſe ourſelves in the eyes of the whole univerſe?

Will the government of this generous nation, which has at all times afforded ſo many proofs of the intereſt it takes in the welfare of the Swiſs, do nothing for us under circumſtances which are to decide, whether we are ſtill to be ranked among free people?

We have only men left us:—the revolution, and ſpoliations without end, have exhauſted our means: we are without arms, without ammunition, without ſtores, and without money to purchaſe them.

No. 17.—NOTE VERBALE.

Lord Hawkeſbury has received his majeſty's commands to communicate, through M. Otto, to the French government, the ſentiments of deep regret which have been excited in his majeſty's mind by the addreſs of the firſt conſul to the Helvetic people, which was publiſhed by authority in the Moniteur of the 1ſt inſtant, and by the repreſentations which have been made to his majeſty on this ſubject, on behalf of the nation whoſe intereſts are ſo immediately affected by it. His majeſty moſt ſincerely laments the convulſions to which the Swiſs Cantons have for ſome time paſt been expoſed; but he can conſider their late exertions in no other light than as the lawful efforts of a brave and generous people to recover their ancient laws and government, and to procure the re-eſtabliſhment of a ſyſtem which experience has demonſtrated, not only to be favourable to the maintenance of their domeſtic happineſs, but to be perfectly conſiſtent with the tranquillity and ſecurity of other powers.

The cantons of Swiſſerland unqueſtionably poſſeſs, in the ſame degree as every other independent ſtate, the right of regulating their own internal concerns; and this right has moreover, in the preſent inſtance, been formally and explicitly guaranteed to the Swiſs nation by the French government, in the treaty of Luneville, conjointly with the other powers who were parties to that engagement. His majeſty has no other deſire than that the people of Swiſſerland, who now appear to be ſo generally united, ſhould be left at liberty to ſettle their own internal government without the interpoſition of any foreign powers; and with whatever regret his majeſty may have peruſed the late proclamation of the French government, he is yet unwilling to believe that they will further attempt to controul that independent nation in the exerciſe of their undoubted rights. His majeſty thinks himſelf called upon by his regard for the general intereſts of Europe,

and by his peculiar ſolicitude for the happineſs and welfare of the Swiſs nation, to expreſs theſe his ſentiments with a frankneſs and ſincerity which he feels to be due to his character, and to the good underſtanding which he is deſirous of preſerving with the government of France.

Downing-ſtreet, October 10.

M. Otto, &c.

No. 18.

Sir, Downing ſtreet, Oct. 10.

His majeſty having deemed it expedient, that a confidential perſon ſhould be ſent at the preſent moment to Swiſſerland, in conſequence of the communication which he has received from the Swiſs confederacy, through their repreſentative at Paris, I am commanded to inform you that he has made choice of you for that purpoſe.

It is of the utmoſt conſequence, conſidering the nature of the buſineſs with which you are entruſted, that you ſhould loſe no time in taking your departure from hence, and that you ſhould make every practicable exertion to arrive on the frontiers of Swiſſerland with as little delay as poſſible. You will inform yourſelf there what is the actual reſidence of the government of the Swiſs confederation, to which you will immediately repair. Having taken the proper means to obtain a confidential interview with the perſons who may be entruſted with the principal direction of affairs, you will communicate to them a copy of the note verbale which I delivered to M. Otto, and which is herewith incloſed: and you will take every opportunity of impreſſing upon their minds the deep intereſt which his majeſty takes in the ſucceſs of their exertions. You will ſtate to them, that his majeſty entertains hopes, that his repreſentation to the French government may have the effect of inducing the firſt conſul to abandon his intention of compelling the Swiſs nation by force to renounce that ſyſtem of government under which they had ſo long proſpered, and to which they appear to be almoſt unanimouſly anxious to return. In this event his majeſty will feel himſelf bound to abſtain from all interference on his part; it being his earneſt deſire that the Swiſs nation ſhould be left at liberty to regulate their own internal concerns, without the interpoſition of any foreign power. If, however, contrary to his majeſty's expectations, the French government ſhould perſiſt in the ſyſtem of coercion announced in the proclamation of the firſt conſul, inſerted in the Moniteur of the 1ſt inſtant, you will, in that caſe, inform yourſelf, by every means in your power, of the diſpoſition of the people at large of the Swiſs confederacy, and particularly of thoſe who have the direction of their affairs, and of thoſe who poſſeſs the greateſt ſhare of influence among them, to perſevere in the defence of their rights, and in the maintenance of the ſyſtem they have adopted. You will likewiſe inquire into the means of defence of which they may be poſſeſſed, and of the probability of their being exerted with ſucceſs. You will on no account encourage them to perſevere in active meaſures of reſiſtance which they are not themſelves deſirous to adopt, or which they may believe are unlikely to be ultimately effectual. If, however, you ſhould find that the people of the Swiſs confederacy are generally determined to perſevere in the maintenance of their independence, and of their right to return to their ancient ſyſtem of government, and if you ſhould be of opinion, that from the union that ſubſiſts among the people, and from their zeal and enthuſiaſm in the cauſe in which they are engaged, they are finally reſolved at all hazards to reſiſt the threatened attempt of the French government to interpoſe by force of arms, in the ſettlement of their internal concerns: you will then immediately communicate, in confidence, to the Swiſs government, that either in the event of a French army having entered the country, or in the event of your having reaſon to be convinced that a French army is actually advancing for that purpoſe, his majeſty has authoriſed you to accede to their application for pecuniary ſuccours.

I have furniſhed you with a cypher and decypher, that you may have it in your power to correſpond with his majeſty's miniſters at Vienna and Munich, if you ſhould think it adviſeable; and as it is highly probable that the armies of the Swiſs confederacy may be inadequately ſupplied with arms, ammunition, or proviſions, and may be deſirous of procuring ſupplies thereof from the neighbouring countries, you will uſe your utmoſt endeavours to give them every facility for this purpoſe. You will be very particular in informing me of the numbers and ſituation of any Auſtrian corps in the neighbourhood of Swiſſerland, and of the probability of their advancing in any event into the Swiſs territory.

As it is of great importance that his majeſty's government ſhould be regularly informed of the events which may be paſſing in Swiſſerland, and of the diſpoſitions that may prevail there, will endeavour to aſcertain the moſt ſafe and expeditious

mode of conveying your letters, which will avoid their paſſing through any part of the French republic.

As it is poſſible that previous to your arrival in Swiſſerland the preſent ſtate of affairs may have undergone a decided alteration, either in conſequence of the ſubmiſſion of the Swiſs cantons, or of any compromiſe having taken place as to their internal concerns, it will be proper that, in that caſe, you ſhould take up your reſidence in ſuch a ſituation as you may think moſt convenient in the neighbourhood of Swiſſerland, of which you will give me the earlieſt intelligence, and there wait for his majeſty's further orders.

I am, &c.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

Francis Moore, eſq.

No. 19.

My Lord, Conſtance, Oct. 31.

I have the honour to inform your lordſhip that I arrived here on the 27th inſtant, and that, having received this evening authentic information of the ſubmiſſion of the diet of Switzerland, aſſembled at Schwitz, to the French arms, I loſe no time in diſpatching the meſſenger Shaw, with this intelligence; from which your lordſhip will perceive that it only remains for me to obey that part of my inſtructions by which I am directed, under ſuch circumſtances, to take up my reſidence in the neighbourhood of Switzerland, and there to await his majeſty's further orders.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) FRA. MOORE.

The right hon. lord Hawkeſbury, &c.

No. 20.

Sir, Downing-ſtreet, Nov. 25.

I have duly received your ſeveral letters by the meſſenger Shaw.

As from the preſent ſtate of Switzerland your continuance in the vicinity of that country appears to be no longer neceſſary, you are at liberty to return to England as ſoon as it may ſuit your convenience.

I am, &c.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

Francis Moore, eſq.

No. 21.

Extract of a Diſpatch from Mr. Liſton to Lord Hawkeſbury, dated Hague, Oct. 13.

A few hours after I had ſent off my laſt diſpatch to your lordſhip (on Saturday the 9th of this month), the French ambaſſador, M. de Semonville, waited upon the preſident of the government of ſtate, and informed him that he had juſt received, by a courier from Paris, orders to inform the government of this country,

'Que le premier conſul avoit appris, avec autant de ſurpriſe que d'indignation, que des perſonnes avides de révolutions vouloient de nouveau troubler le repos dans la Batavie, en abuſant même pour cet effet de noms reſpectables; et que le premier conſul, comme allié de la republique, invitoit le gouvernement à prendre toutes les méſures néceſſaires pour maintenir l'ordre des choſes établi par la conſtitution.'

Theſe were nearly the words read to me by the ſecretary of ſtate, from a note in his own hand-writing, dictated to him by M. de Semonville, with a view to its publication (and a tranſlation was accordingly inſerted in the Dutch official paper of the Hague on the 11th), but they fall very far ſhort of the language employed by the French miniſter for foreign affairs in his diſpatches to the ambaſſador, and in the communication made by him to the Dutch chargé d'affaires at Paris, (who alſo ſent a meſſenger to the Hague upon this occaſion). In theſe M. de Talleyrand entered into conſiderable detail on the ſubject of the plots ſuppoſed to be formed in this country againſt the adminiſtration, mentioned the names of the chiefs, and ended by making an offer, on the part of the firſt conſul, to come to the aſſiſtance of the government (ſhould circumſtances render it neceſſary) with all his forces.

No. 22.

My Lord, Hague, Oct. 29.

The recent attack made by Bonaparte upon the liberties and independence of the Swiſs cantons, has naturally made a ſtrong impreſſion on the inhabitants of this country; and the public anxiety has been much augmented by certain ſymptoms in the conduct of the conſular government, which ſeem to indicate an intention not to withdraw the French troops, which have been kept in the Batavian republic for ſome time paſt, under the title of auxiliaries, and paid and maintained at the expence of the Dutch nation.

Theſe troops (amounting to between ten and eleven thouſand men) were to remain here till the concluſion of the definitive treaty with Great Britain. It was afterward formally promiſed on the part of France, that they ſhould evacuate the territories of the republic, at the lateſt, on the expiration of the laſt French year (the 23d of September).—They accordingly began their march to the ſouthward, a few days before that period; and the government and the people rejoiced at the proſpect of being finally relieved from a load which has become extremely irkſome to them. But, on

pretence that a great proportion of the corps were to be embarked at Flushing for Louisiana, and that there was a want of shipping for their accommodation, they took up their quarters on the frontiers of the country (at Bois-le-Duc, Breda, and Bergen op Zoom), where they still remain; and demands have continued to be made for their pay and maintenance.

Hopes were, however, entertained from day to day, that their departure would take place; when, to the astonishment of the Batavian government, official notice was (last week) transmitted from France to the department of war at the Hague (which has been charged with the support of these corps), that the first consul has been pleased to appoint a new commander in chief (general Montrichard), and a new staff, for the auxiliary troops in this country; and the notice was given that government might provide for the pay of the officers in question.

The administration appear resolved to oppose all the resistance in their power to this unexpected and oppressive extortion. An express has been sent off to the Dutch ambassador at Paris, charging him to claim, in the most urgent terms, the accomplishment of the treaties subsisting between the two republics, and the fulfilment of the repeated and recent promises made by the French government upon this subject. And in case of the failure of this application, they talk of addressing themselves to the principal powers of Europe, who had any share or influence in the conclusion of the peace, to intreat their intervention and good offices, with a view to the maintenance of the independence of the republic.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) ROBERT LISTON.

Right hon. lord Hawkesbury, &c.

No. 23.

Is a letter from lord Hawkesbury to lord Whitworth, dated Nov. 30, 1802, stating that instructions had been sent out to general Stuart to evacuate Egypt, and that the delay of the execution was occasioned by a mistake of that general.

No. 24 and 25.

Are letters from lord St. Helen's, from Petersburgh, the one dated July 20, and the other August 3, stating, that he had applied to the Russian government on the business of Malta.

No. 26.

Is a note from lord Paget to count Cobentzel, dated Vienna, July 15, requesting the emperor of Germany to guarantee Malta: and also a note from the French minister at Vienna, Champagny, to the same, for the same purpose.

No. 27.

Is the emperor's act of guarantee, dated Vienna, August 20.

No. 28, 29, 30.

Are letters from Mr. Casamajor, dated Berlin, August 21, 31, and October 2, to lord Hawkesbury, stating, that he had invited the king of Prussia to guarantee Malta.

No. 31.

Is a letter from Mr. Jackson to lord Hawkesbury, dated Berlin, Nov. 25, upon the above subject, in which he says, that in an interview with count Haugwitz, the latter 'adverted to what he had told Mr. Casamajor of the king his master having ordered a report to be made to him on the state of the commanderies in Silesia, hinting, that this country took a very slight interest in the fate of the island; and that he was countenanced in withholding its guaranty *by the example of Spain.*'

No. 32.

Is a letter from Mr. Garlike to lord Hawkesbury, dated Petersburgh, Sept. 17, announcing that the French minister was instructed to invite the emperor of Russia to guarantee Malta.

No. 33.

Letter from Sir John B. Warren to lord Hawkesbury, dated Petersburgh, Nov. 18, in which he states that general Hedouville had joined him in his endeavours to induce the emperor of Russia to guarantee Malta.

No. 34.

Is a note from the same to the same, dated 25th November, containing the conditions on which Russia consents to guarantee Malta. The principal conditions are, 1. The acknowledgment of the sovereignty of the order of St. Jean over the island. 2. The right of the king of Naples, as sovereign of the island, to remain as before the war. 3. The independence and neutrality of the island to be secured by the contracting parties in all cases of war. 4. Until the order shall be able to maintain its independence and neutrality, the forts to be occupied by Neapolitan troops, under the authority of the grand master; the expence to be defrayed by his said majesty, and the two contracting powers.

No. 35.

My Lord, Paris, Jan. 27, 1803.

I have to report to your lordship the purport of a conversation I had on Tuesday last by appointment with M. Talleyrand. He had invited me some days ago for this

purpoſe. The communication he had to make to me related to two points, both equally important, as he ſaid, to the maintenance of good harmony between the two countries; with this difference however, that the one originated with himſelf, and was dictated by his anxiety to do away every thing which might feed the mutual irritation of the two countries; and the other by the expreſs order of the firſt conſul. That which came from himſelf related to the Engliſh newſpapers, against which he pronounced a moſt bitter philippic, aſſuring me that the firſt conſul was extremely hurt to find that his endeavours to conciliate had hitherto produced no other effect than to increaſe the abuſe with which the papers in England continually loaded him. He expatiated much upon this topic, and endeavoured to eſtabliſh a fact, which I aſſured him a reference to any one newſpaper in Paris would inſtantly refute, that during four months not a word of provocation had appeared in any French journal, which could juſtify a retort from thoſe publiſhed in England. For the reſt he advanced nothing but what has been ſaid on more than one occaſion to Mr. Merry, and reported by him to your lordſhip. I was, however, given to underſtand, that the firſt conſul was, in fact, highly incenſed, and the more ſo, he was pleaſed to ſay, as it came from a country of whoſe good opinion he was ſo very ambitious.

In my reply, I could but go over the old ground, and endeavour to make M. Talleyrand underſtand—firſt, That whatever was ſaid in the Engliſh papers might be conſidered but as a national retaliation for what was publiſhed in the French papers—ſecondly, That what was *officially* publiſhed here was by no means ſo in England—and thirdly, That although the government poſſeſſed a control over the preſs in France, the Engliſh government neither had nor could have, unleſs they purchaſed it at the ſame price, any whatever in England. Upon this he endeavoured to prove to me, that there were papers in England attached to different parties, and went over their names and ſuppoſed connections, with great preciſion; and that conſequently his majeſty's miniſters might ſo far control thoſe at leaſt which depended upon them, as to prevent their inſerting that abuſe which muſt be conſidered as having their ſanction. I endeavoured to explain to him what the influence was, which he ſuppoſed miniſters to poſſeſs in England; that it amounted to nothing more than a preference which your lordſhip, for inſtance, might give to one paper rather than to another, by ſending to it any article of news which it might be wiſhed to make public; but that your lordſhip's influence went no further; and if the editor of ſuch a paper conceived it more for his intereſt to continue to write after his own fancy, and uncontroled, than to be the publiſher of ſuch occaſional articles, in that caſe all influence was at an end. I told him, that if he had remarked any abuſive article in any paper of ſuch a deſcription, it was natural and fair to conclude that it did not depend upon government to prevent it. He perſiſted in his opinion, that his majeſty's miniſters might keep certain papers in order, as I did in aſſuring him, that until the firſt conſul could ſo far maſter his feelings as to be as indifferent to the ſcurrility of the Engliſh papers, as the Engliſh government was to that which daily appeared in the French, this ſtate of irritation was irremediable. I told him, however, that I would report the ſubſtance of this communication to your lordſhip, although I could aſſure him that your lordſhip could add nothing to the explanation which had been given, and in ſuch detail, by Mr. Merry, from your lordſhip.

M. Talleyrand, with great ſolemnity, required of me to inform him, and this by the expreſs order of the firſt conſul, what were his majeſty's intentions with regard to the evacuation of Malta. He ſaid that another grand maſter would now very ſoon be elected; that all the powers of Europe invited ſo to do, with the exception of Ruſſia, whoſe difficulties it was eaſy to remove, and without whom the guaranty would be equally complete, were ready to come forward; and that conſequently the term would very ſoon arrive, when Great Britain could have no pretext for keeping longer poſſeſſion.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) WHITWORTH.

Right hon. lord Hawkeſbury, &c.

No. 16.

My Lord, Downing-ſtreet, Feb. 9.

In anſwer to your excellency's diſpatch of January 27, relative to the enquiry made of you, by the French government, on the ſubject of Malta, I can have no difficulty in aſſuring you, that his majeſty has entertained a moſt ſincere deſire that the treaty of Amiens might be executed in a full and complete manner; but it has not been poſſible for him to conſider this treaty as having been founded on principles different from thoſe which have been invariably applied to every other antecedent treaty or convention, namely, that they were negociated with reference to the actual ſtate of poſſeſ-

ſion of the different parties, and of the treaties or public engagements by which they were bound at the time of its concluſion; and that if that ſtate of poſſeſſion, and of engagements, was ſo materially altered by the act of either of the parties as to affect the nature of the compact itſelf, the other party has a right, according to the law of nations, to interfere for the purpoſe of obtaining ſatisfaction or compenſation for any eſſential difference which ſuch acts may have ſubſequently made in their relative ſituation; that if there ever was a caſe to which this principle might be applied with peculiar propriety, it was that of the late treaty of peace; for the negociation was conducted on a baſis not merely propoſed by his majeſty, but ſpecially agreed to in an official note by the French government, viz. that his majeſty ſhould keep a compenſation out of his conqueſts for the important acquiſitions of territory made by France upon the continent. This is a ſufficient proof that the compact was underſtood to have been concluded with reference to the then exiſting ſtate of things; for the meaſure of his majeſty's compenſation was to be calculated with reference to the acquiſitions of France at that time; and if the interference of the French government in the general affairs of Europe, ſince that period; if their interpoſition with reſpect to Switzerland and Holland, whoſe independence was guaranteed by them at the time of the concluſion of the treaty of peace; if the annexations which have been made to France in various quarters, but particularly thoſe in Italy, have extended the territory and increaſed the power of the French government, his majeſty would be warranted, conſiſtently with the ſpirit of the treaty of peace, in claiming equivalents for theſe acquiſitions, as a counterpoiſe to the augmentation of the power of France. His majeſty, however, anxious to prevent all ground of miſunderſtanding, and deſirous of conſolidating the general peace of Europe, as far as might be in his power, was willing to have waved the pretenſions he might have a right to advance of this nature; and as the other articles of the definitive treaty have been in a courſe of execution on his part, ſo he would have been ready to have carried into effect the true intent and ſpirit of the 10th article, the execution of which, according to its terms, had been rendered impracticable by circumſtances which it was not in his majeſty's power to control. A communication to your lordſhip would accordingly have been prepared, conformably to this diſpoſition, if the attention of his majeſty's government had not been attracted by the very extraordinary publication of the report of colonel Sebaſtiani to the firſt conſul. It is impoſſible for his majeſty to view this report in any other light than as an official publication; for without referring particularly to explanations which have been repeatedly given upon the ſubject of publications in the Moniteur, the article in queſtion, as it purports to be the report to the firſt conſul of an accredited agent, as it appears to have been ſigned by colonel Sebaſtiani himſelf, and as it is publiſhed in the official paper, with an official title affixed to it, muſt be conſidered as authoriſed by the French government. This report contains the moſt unjuſtifiable inſinuations and charges againſt the officer who commanded his forces in Egypt, and againſt the Britiſh army in that quarter, inſinuations and charges wholly deſtitute of foundation, and ſuch as would warrant his majeſty in demanding that ſatisfaction, which, on occaſions of this nature, independent powers in a ſtate of amity have a right to expect from each other. It diſcloſes, moreover, views in the higheſt degree injurious to the intereſts of his majeſty's dominions, and directly repugnant to, and utterly inconſiſtent with, the ſpirit and letter of the treaty of peace concluded between his majeſty and the French government; and his majeſty would feel that he was wanting in a proper regard to the honour of his crown, and to the intereſts of his dominions, if he could ſee with indifference ſuch a ſyſtem developed and avowed. His majeſty cannot, therefore, regard the conduct of the French government on various occaſions ſince the concluſion of the definitive treaty, the inſinuations and charges contained in the report of colonel Sebaſtiani, and the views which that report diſcloſes, without feeling it neceſſary for him diſtinctly to declare, that it will be impoſſible for him to enter into any further diſcuſſion relative to Malta, unleſs he receives ſatisfactory explanation on the ſubject of this communication.

Your excellency is deſired to take an early opportunity of fully explaining his majeſty's ſentiments, as above ſtated, to the French government. I am, &c.

(Signed) HAWKESBURY.

His excellency lord Whitworth, &c.

No. 37.

Is a letter from lord Whitworth to lord Hawkeſbury, dated Paris, Feb. 17, 1803, in which he ſtated that he had a converſation with M. Talleyrand, in which he enforced the principles laid down in No. 36,

declared that colonel Sebaſtiani's report had rouſed the attention of his majeſty's government, and concluded with this diſtinct declaration: 'That it was impoſſible for his his majeſty to enter into any further diſcuſſion relative to Malta, unleſs he received ſatisfactory explanations on the ſubject of the firſt conſul's views.'—To this his lordſhip ſays, Talleyrand aſſerted that Sebaſtiani's miſſion was 'ſtrictly commercial,' the deſire of the firſt conſul for peace, and deſired to know the nature and extent of the ſatisfaction his majeſty would require.

No. 38.

My Lord, Paris, Feb. 21.

My laſt diſpatch, in which I gave your lordſhip an account of my converſation with M. de Talleyrand, was ſcarcely gone, when I received a note from him, informing me that the firſt conſul wiſhed to converſe with me, and deſired I would come to him at the Thuilleries at nine o'clock. He received me in his cabinet, with tolerable cordiality, and, after talking on indifferent ſubjects for a few minutes, he deſired me to ſit down, as he himſelf did on the other ſide of the table, and began. He told me, that he felt it neceſſary, after what had paſſed between me and M. de Talleyrand, that he ſhould, in the moſt clear and authentic manner, make known his ſentiments to me in order to their being communicated to his majeſty; and he conceived this would be more effectually done by himſelf than through any medium whatever. He ſaid, that it was a matter of great diſappointment to him, that the treaty of Amiens, inſtead of being followed by conciliation and friendſhip, the natural effects of peace, had been productive only of continual and increaſing jealouſy and miſtruſt; and that this miſtruſt was now avowed in ſuch a manner as muſt bring the point to an iſſue.

He now enumerated the ſeveral provocations which he pretended to have received from England. He placed in the firſt line our not evacuating Malta and Alexandria, as we were bound to do by treaty. In this he ſaid that no conſideration on earth ſhould make him acquieſce; and, of the two, he had rather ſee us in poſſeſſion of the Fauxbourg St. Antoine than Malta. He then adverted to the abuſe thrown out againſt him in the Engliſh public prints; but this, he ſaid, he did not ſo much regard, as that which appeared in the French papers publiſhed in London. This he conſidered as much more miſchievous, ſince it was meant to excite this country againſt him and his government. He complained of the protection given to Georges and others of his deſcription, who, inſtead of being ſent to Canada, as had been repeatedly promiſed, were permitted to remain in England, handſomely penſioned, and conſtantly committing all ſorts of crimes on the coaſts of France, as well as in the Interior. In confirmation of this, he told me, that two men had within theſe few days been apprehended in Normandy, and were now on their way to Paris, who were hired aſſaſſins, and employed by the biſhop of Arras, by the baron de Rolle, by Georges, and by Dutheil, as would be fully proved in a court of juſtice, and made known to the world.

He acknowledged, that the irritation he felt againſt England encreaſed daily, becauſe every wind (I make uſe as much as I can of his own ideas and expreſſions) which blew from England brought nothing but enmity and hatred againſt him.

He now went back to Egypt, and told me, that if he had felt the ſmalleſt inclination to take poſſeſſion of it by force, he might have done it a month ago, by ſending twenty-five thouſand men to Aboukir, who would have poſſeſſed themſelves of the whole country in defiance of the four thouſand Britiſh in Alexandria. That inſtead of that garriſon being a means of protecting Egypt, it was only furniſhing him with a pretence for invading it. This he ſhould not do, whatever might be his deſire to have it as a colony, becauſe he did not think it worth the riſk of a war, in which he might, perhaps, be conſidered as the aggreſſor, and by which he ſhould loſe more than he could gain, ſince, ſooner or later, Egypt would belong to France, either by the falling to pieces of the Turkiſh empire, or by ſome arrangement with the Porte.

As a proof of his deſire to maintain peace, he wiſhed to know what he had to gain by going to war with England. A deſcent was the only means of offence he had, and that he was determined to attempt, by putting himſelf at the head of the expedition. But now could it be ſuppoſed, that after having gained the height on which he ſtood, he would riſk his life and reputation in ſuch a hazardous attempt, unleſs forced to it by neceſſity, when the chances were that he and the greateſt part of the expedition would go to the bottom of the ſea. He talked much on this ſubject, but never affected to diminiſh the danger. He acknowledged that there were one hundred chances to one againſt him; but ſtill he was determined to attempt it, if war ſhould be the conſe-

quence of the preſent diſcuſſion; and that ſuch was the diſpoſition of his troops, that army after army would be found for the enterprize.

He then expatiated much on the natural force of the two countries. France with an army of four hundred and eighty thouſand men, for to this amount, it is, he ſaid, to be immediately completed, all ready for the moſt deſperate enterprizes; and England with a fleet that made her miſtreſs of the ſeas, and which he did not think he ſhould be able to equal in leſs than ten years. Two ſuch countries by a proper underſtanding might govern the world, but by their ſtrifes might overturn it. He ſaid, that if he had not felt the enmity of the Britiſh government on every occaſion ſince the treaty of Amiens, there would have been nothing that he would not have done to prove his deſire to conciliate; participation in indemnities as well as in influence on the continent; treaties of commerce, in ſhort, any thing that could have given ſatisfaction, and have teſtified his friendſhip. Nothing, however, had been able to conquer the hatred of the Britiſh government, and therefore it was now come to the point, whether we ſhould have peace or war. To preſerve peace, the treaty of Amiens muſt be fulfilled; the abuſe in the public prints, if not totally ſuppreſſed, at leaſt kept within bounds, and confined to the Engliſh papers; and the protection ſo openly given to his bittereſt enemies (alluding to Georges and perſons of that deſcription) muſt be withdrawn. If war, it was neceſſary only to ſay ſo, and to refuſe to fulfil the treaty. He now made the tour of Europe to prove to me, that in its preſent ſtate, there was no power with which we could conſpire for the purpoſe of making war againſt France; conſequently it was our intereſt to gain time, and if we had any point to gain, renew the war when circumſtances were more favourable. He ſaid, it was not doing him juſtice to ſuppoſe, that he conceived himſelf above the opinion of his country or of Europe. He would not riſk uniting Europe againſt him by any violent act of aggreſſion; neither was he ſo powerful in France as to perſuade the nation to go to war unleſs on good grounds. He ſaid, that he had not chaſtiſed the Algerines, from his unwillingneſs to excite the jealouſy of other powers, but he hoped that England, Ruſſia, and France, would one day feel that it was their intereſt to deſtroy ſuch a neſt of thieves, and force them to live rather by cultivating their land than by plunder.

In the little I ſaid to him, for he gave me in the courſe of two hours but very few opportunities of ſaying a word, I confined myſelf ſtrictly to the tenor of your lordſhip's inſtructions. I urged them in the ſame manner as I had done to M. de Talleyrand, and dwelt as ſtrongly as I could on the ſenſation which the publication of Sebaſtiani's report had created in England, where the views of France toward Egypt muſt always command the utmoſt vigilance and jealouſy. He maintained that what ought to convince us of his deſire of peace, was on the one hand the little he had to gain by renewing the war, and on the other the facility with which he might have taken poſſeſſion of Egypt with the very ſhips and troops which were now going from the Mediterranean to St. Domingo, and that with the approbation of all Europe, and more particularly of the Turks, who had repeatedly invited him to join with them for the purpoſe of forcing us to evacuate their territory.

I do not pretend to follow the arguments of the firſt conſul in detail; this would be impoſſible, from the vaſt variety of matter, which he took occaſion to introduce. His purpoſe was evidently to convince me that on Malta muſt depend peace or war, and at the ſame time to impreſs upon my mind a ſtrong idea of the means he poſſeſſed of annoying us at home and abroad.

With regard to the miſtruſt and jealouſy which he ſaid conſtantly prevailed ſince the concluſion of the treaty of Amiens, I obſerved that after a war of ſuch long duration, ſo full of rancour, and carried on in a manner of which hiſtory has no example, it was but natural that a conſiderable degree of agitation ſhould prevail; but this, like the ſwell after a ſtorm, would gradually ſubſide, if not kept up by the policy of either party; that I would not pretend to pronounce which had been the aggreſſor in the paper war of which he complained, and which was ſtill kept up, though with this difference, that in England it was independent of government, and in France, its very act and deed. To this I added, that it muſt be admitted that we had ſuch motives of miſtruſt againſt France as could not be alleged againſt us, and I was going to inſtance the acceſſion of territory and influence gained by France ſince the treaty, when he interrupted me by ſaying, I ſuppoſe you mean Piedmont and Switzerland; 'ce ſont des Bagatelles;' and it muſt have been foreſeen while the negociation was pending; 'Vous n'avez pas le droit d'en parler à cette heure.' I

then alleged as a cauſe of miſtruſt and of jealouſy, the impoſſibility of obtaining juſtice or any kind of redreſs for any of his majeſty's ſubjects. He aſked me in what reſpect: and I told him that ſince the ſinging of the treaty, not one Britiſh claimant had been ſatisfied, although every Frenchman of that deſcription had been ſo within one month after that period; and that ſince I had been here, and I could ſay as much of my predeceſſors, not one ſatisfactory anſwer had been obtained to the innumerable repreſentations which we had been under the neceſſity of making in favour of the Britiſh ſubjects and property detained in the ſeveral ports of France and elſewhere, without even a ſhadow of juſtice: ſuch an order of things, I ſaid, was not made to inſpire confidence; but, on the contrary, muſt create miſtruſt. This, he ſaid, muſt be attributed to the natural difficulties attending ſuch ſuits, when both parties thought themſelves right; but he denied that ſuch delays could proceed from any diſinclination to do what was juſt and right. With regard to the penſions which were granted to French or Swiſs individuals, I obſerved that they were given as a reward for paſt ſervices during the war, and moſt certainly not for preſent ones, and ſtill leſs for ſuch as had been inſinuated, of a nature repugnant to the feelings of every individual in England, and to the univerſally acknowledged loyalty and honour of the Britiſh government.' That as for any participation of indemnities, or other acceſſions which his majeſty's ambition led him rather to preſerve than to acquire; and that with regard to the moſt propitious moment for renewing hoſtilities, his majeſty, whoſe ſincere deſire it was to continue the bleſſings of peace to his ſubjects, would always conſider ſuch a meaſure as the greateſt calamity; but that if his majeſty was ſo deſirous of peace, it muſt not be imputed to the difficulty of obtaining allies; and the leſs ſo, as thoſe means which it might be neceſſary to afford ſuch allies, for perhaps inadequate ſervices, would all be concentrated in England, and give a proportionate increaſe of energy to our own exertions.

At this part of the converſation he roſe from his chair, and told me he ſhould give orders to general Andreoſſy to enter on the diſcuſſion of this buſineſs with your lordſhip; but he wiſhed that I ſhould at the ſame time be made acquainted with his motives and convinced of his ſincerity rather from himſelf than from his miniſters. He then, after a converſation of two hours, during the greateſt part of which he talked inceſſantly, converſed for a few moments on indifferent ſubjects, in apparent good humour, and retired.

Such was nearly, as I can recollect, the purport of this conference.

It muſt, however, be obſerved, that he did not, as M. Talleyrand had done, affect to attribute colonel Sebaſtiani's miſſion to commercial motives only, but as one rendered neceſſary in a military point of view, by the intraction by us of the treaty of Amiens.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) WHITWORTH.

No. 42.

Is a letter from lord Whitworth to lord Hawkeſbury, dated Paris, March 12, acknowledging the receipt, on the 11th, by expreſs, of the king's meſſage of the 8th, to parliament, ſtating, that he waited upon Talleyrand at two o'clock, and found he had been previouſly informed of it by a ſpecial meſſenger. 'Talleyrand,' he adds, 'confined himſelf ſtrictly to the aſſurance which he has ſo repeatedly made, that there was no foundation whatever for the alarm which was felt by his majeſty's miniſters; that the firſt conſul was pacific: that he had no thoughts whatever of attacking his majeſty's dominions, unleſs forced to do ſo by a commencement of hoſtilities on our part; that he ſhould always conſider the *refuſal to evacuate Malta as ſuch a commencement of hoſtilities*; and that as we had hitherto heſitated to do ſo, he was juſtified in adopting the meaſures which might eventually be neceſſary. He diſclaimed every idea of the armaments fitting out in the Dutch ports having any other deſtination than to the colonies.'

M. de Talleyrand likewiſe communicated to lord Whitworth a note, which he had that morning drawn up with the firſt conſul: he ſaid, that it was not to be conſidered as any thing abſolutely official; that it was a memorandum to aſſiſt his lordſhip.

Note referred to in the preceding Paragraph.

1. If his Britannic majeſty in his meſſage means to ſpeak of the expedition of Helvoetſluys, all the world knows that it was deſtined for America, and that it was on the point of ſailing for its deſtination, but in conſequence of his majeſty's meſſage, the embarkation and putting to ſea are about to be countermanded.

2. If we do not receive ſatisfactory explanation reſpecting theſe armaments in England, and if they actually take place, *it is natural* that the firſt conſul ſhould

march 20,000 men into Holland, ſince Holland is mentioned in the meſſage.

3. Theſe troops being once in the country, *it is natural* that an encampment ſhould be formed on the frontiers of Hanover; and, moreover, that additional bodies ſhould join thoſe troops which were already embarked for America, in order to form new embarkations, and to maintain an offenſive and defenſive poſition.

4. *It is natural* that the firſt conſul ſhould order ſeveral camps to be formed at Calais, and on different points of the coaſts.

5. It is likewiſe *in the nature of things*, that the firſt conſul, who was on the point of evacuating Switzerland, ſhould be under the neceſſity of continuing a French army in that country.

6. It is alſo *the natural conſequence of all this*, that the firſt conſul ſhould ſend a freſh force into Italy, in order to occupy, in caſe of neceſſity, the poſition of Tarentum.

7. England arming, and arming with ſo much publicity, will compel France to put her armies on the war eſtabliſhment, a ſtep ſo important, as cannot fail to agitate all Europe.

The reſult of all theſe movements will be to irritate the two countries ſtill more. France will have been compelled to take all theſe precautions in conſequence of the Engliſh armaments, and nevertheleſs every means will be taken to excite the Engliſh nation by the aſſertion, that France meditates an invaſion. The whole Britiſh population will be obliged to put themſelves under arms for their defence, and their export trade will, even before the war, be in a ſtate of ſtagnation throughout the whole extent of the countries occupied by the French arms.

The experience of nations, and the courſe of events prove, that the diſtance between ſuch a ſtate of things and actual hoſtility, is unfortunately not remote.

As to the differences, of which mention is made in his Britannic majeſty's meſſage, we know not of any that we have with England; for it cannot be imagined that a ſerious intention can have exiſted in England of evading the execution of the treaty of Amiens, under the protection of a military armament. Europe well knows that it is poſſible to attempt the diſmemberment of France, but not to intimidate her.

No. 43.

My lord, Paris, March 14, 1803.

The meſſenger, Maſon, went on Saturday with my diſpatches of that date, and until yeſterday, Sunday, I ſaw no one likely to give me any further information, ſuch as I could depend upon, as to the effect which his majeſty's meſſage had produced on the firſt conſul. At the court which was held at the Thuilleries upon that day, he accoſted me evidently under very conſiderable agitation. He began by aſking me if I had any news from England. I told him that I had received letters from your lordſhip two days ago. He immediately ſaid—And ſo you are determined to go to war? No, I replied, we are too ſenſible of the advantages of peace.—'Nous avons,' ſaid he, "déjà fait la guerre pendant quinze ans.'—As he ſeemed to wait for an anſwer, I obſerved only, 'C'en eſt déjà trop.'—'Mais,' ſaid he, 'vous voulez la faire encore quinze annees, et vous m'y forçez.'—I told him that was very far from his majeſty's intentions.—He then proceeded to count Marcow and the chevalier Azara, who were ſtanding together at a little diſtance from me, and ſaid to them—'Les Anglois veulent la guerre, mais s'ils ſont les premiers à tirer l'Epée, je ferai le dernier à la remettre. Ils ne reſpectent pas les traités. Il faut dorénavant les couvrir de crepe noir.'—He then went his round. In a few minutes he came back to me, and reſumed the converſation, if ſuch it can be called, by ſomething perſonally civil to me. He began again—'Pourquois des armémens? Contre qui des mesures de precaution? Je n'ai pas un ſeul vaiſſeau de ligne dans les ports de France; mais ſi vous voulez armer, j'armerai auſſi; ſi vous voulez vous battre, je me battrai auſſi. Vous pourrez peut-etre tuer la France, jamais l'intimider.'—'On ne voudroit,' ſaid I; 'ni l'un ni l'autre. On mais voudroit vivre en bonne intelligence avec elle.'—'Il faut donc reſpecter les traités,' replied he; 'Malheur à ceux qui ne reſpectent pas les traités; ils en ſeront reſponſable à toute l'Europe.'—He was too much agitated to make it adviſeable for me to prolong the converſation; I therefore made no anſwer, and he retired to his apartment, repeating the laſt phraſe.

It is to be remarked that all this paſſed loud enough to be overheard by two hundred people who were preſent, and I am perſuaded that there was not a ſingle perſon who did not feel the extreme impropriety of his conduct, and the total want of dignity as well as of decency on the occaſion.

I propoſe taking the firſt opportunity of

ſpeaking to M. Talleyrand on this ſubject.

I have the honour to be, &c.

(Signed) WHITWORTH.

Right hon. lord Hawkeſbury, &c.

No. 44.

Is a letter from lord Hawkeſbury to lord Whitworth, dated March 15, incloſing a note, No. 45, in which he dwells upon Sebaſtiana's miſſion, and enforces the doctrine '*that his majeſty ſhould keep a compenſation out of his conqueſts for the important acquiſition of territory made by France upon the continent.*'

No. 46.

Is a letter from lord Whitworth to lord Hawkeſbury, dated Paris, March 17, in which he ſays, in anſwer to his complaint of the treatment which he had received the preceding Sunday at the Thuilleries: 'M. de Talleyrand aſſured me, that it was very far from the firſt conſul's intention to diſtreſs me; but he had felt himſelf perſonally inſulted by the charges which were brought againſt him by the Engliſh government; *and that it was incumbent upon him to take the firſt opportunity of exculpating himſelf in the preſence of the miniſters of the different powers of Europe.*'

No. 48.

Is a letter from lord Hawkeſbury to lord Whitworth, relative to the behaviour of the firſt conſul, on Sunday, at the Thuilleries, in which he ſays—'It will be impoſſible for you to preſent yourſelf on any days of ceremony to the firſt conſul, unleſs you receive an aſſurance that you will never be expoſed to a repetition of the treatment which you experienced on the occaſion.'

No. 49.

Is a letter from the ſame to the ſame, incloſing a note of general Andreoſſi, in which the latter ſays—'There were at the time of the meſſage, but two frigates in the roads of Holland, and but three corvettes in the road of Dunkirk;' and denies that there were any diſcuſſions ſubſiſting between the two countries. It adverts alſo to the preſs, and other topics already ſtated. On the ſubject of the preſs, he ſays—'*The firſt conſul has, however, expreſſed, and he again expreſſes his wiſh, that means ſhould be adopted to prevent in future any mention being made of what is paſſing in* England, *either in the official diſcuſſions or in the polemical writings in* France, *as in like manner in the French official diſcuſſions and polemical writings no mention whatever ſhould be made of what is paſſing in* England.' Againſt the report of Sebaſtiani, he ſets off the word of colonel Wilſon.

No. 50.

Is a letter of the 4th of April from lord Hawkeſbury, incloſing the following propoſition to the French government:

'Malta to remain in perpetuity in the poſſeſſion of his majeſty. The knights of the order of St. John to be indemnified by his majeſty for any loſſes of property which they may ſuſtain in conſequence of ſuch an arrangement.

'Holland and Switzerland to be evacuated by the French troops.

'The iſland of Elba to be confirmed by his majeſty to France, and the king of Etruria to be acknwledged.

'The Italian and Ligurian republics to be acknowledged by his majeſty, provided an arrangement is made in Italy for the king of Sardinia, which ſhall be ſatisfactory to him.'

No. 51, 52, 53.

Are letters from lord Whitworth, in which he ſtates his propoſal of the terms in No. 50, and his urging arguments in ſupport; but they are contained in the preceding numbers.

No. 54.

This is a letter from lord Whitworth, dated 14th April, in which he announces the negociation at a ſtand.

No. 55, 56.

Are letters from lord Hawkeſbury of the 13th of April, urging former demands reſpecting Malta.

No. 66.

Lord Whitworth ſtates the receipt of the following note:

The underſigned has reported to the firſt conſul the converſation which he had with his excellency lord Whitworth on the 6th of this month, and in which his excellency announced, that his Britannic majeſty had ordered him to make, verbally, in his name, the following demands:—

1ſt. That his Britannic majeſty ſhould retain his troops at Malta for ten years.

2d. That the iſland of Lampedoſa ſhould be ceded to him in full poſſeſſion.

3d. That the French troops ſhould evacuate Holland.

And that if no convention on this baſis ſhould have been ſigned within a week, his excellency lord Whitworth had orders to terminate his miſſion, and to return to London.

On the demand made by the underſigned, that lord Whitworth would, in conformity to the uſage of all ages and of

all countries, give in writing what he himſelf called the *ultimatum* of his government, his excellency declared, that his inſtructions expreſsly forbad him to tranſmit on this object any written note.

The intentions of the firſt conſul being entirely pacific, the underſigned diſpenſes with making any obſervations on ſo new and ſo ſtrange a manner of treating on affairs of this importance.

And, in order to give a freſh teſtimony of the value which he attaches to the continuance of peace, the firſt conſul has directed the underſigned to make the following notification in the accuſtomed ſtyle and forms.

As the iſland of Lampedoſa does not belong to France, it is not for the firſt conſul either to accede to or to refuſe the deſire teſtified by his Britannic majeſty, of having this iſland in his poſſeſſion.

With regard to the iſland of Malta, as the demand made reſpecting it by his Britannic majeſty would change a formal diſpoſition in the treaty of Amiens, the firſt conſul cannot but previouſly communicate it to his majeſty the king of Spain, and to the Batavian republic, contracting parties to the ſaid treaty, in order to know their opinion; and beſides, as the ſtipulations relative to Malta have been guaranteed by their majeſties the emperor of Germany, the emperor of Ruſſia, and the king of Pruſſia, the contracting parties to the treaty of Amiens, before they agree to any change in the article of Malta, are bound to concert with the guaranteeing powers.

The firſt conſul will not refuſe this concert, but it belongs not to him to propoſe it, ſince it is not he who urges any change in the guaranteed ſtipulations.

With regard to the evacuation of Holland by the French troops, the firſt conſul has no difficulty in directing the underſigned to repeat, that the French troops ſhall evacuate Holland at the inſtant that the ſtipulations of the treaty of Amiens ſhall be executed in every quarter of the globe.

The underſigned avails himſelf of this opportunity to renew to his excellency the Engliſh ambaſſador, the aſſurance of his high conſideration.

(Signed) C. M. TALLEYRAND.

Paris, May 2, 1803.

No. 70.

Is a letter from lord Whitworth, dated 12th May, in which he ſtates the conduct of the French miniſter *to gain* time, and that he had ſubmitted the following projet:

PROJET.

1. The French government ſhall engage to make no oppoſition to the ceſſion of the iſland of Lampedoſa to his majeſty by the king of the Two Sicilies.

2. In conſequence of the preſent ſtate of the iſland of Lampedoſa, his majeſty ſhall remain in poſſeſſion of the iſland of Malta until ſuch arrangements ſhall be made by him as may enable his majeſty to occupy Lampedoſa as a naval ſtation; after which period the iſland of Malta ſhall be given up to the inhabitants, and acknowledged as an independent ſtate.

3. The territories of the Batavian republic ſhall be evacuated by the French forces within one month after the concluſion of a convention founded on the principles of this projet.

4. The king of Etruria, and the Italian and Ligurian republics, ſhall be acknowledged by his majeſty.

5. Switzerland ſhall be evacuated by the French forces.

6. A ſuitable territorial proviſion ſhall be aſſigned to the king of Sardinia in Italy.

SECRET ARTICLE.

His majeſty ſhall not be required by the French government to evacuate the iſland of Malta, until after the expiration of ten years.

Articles 4, 5, and 6, may be entirely omitted, or muſt all be inſerted.

The ſame day lord Whitworth, having received no anſwer to his projet, requeſted his paſſports.

Here the correſpondence ends. The Appendix contains no matter but ſuch as is already before the public, except the inſtructions to citizen Dauvett, the commercial agent at Dublin; of which alone the following are intereſting:

11. You are required to furniſh a plan of the ports of your diſtrict, with a ſpecification of the ſoundings for mooring veſſels.

12. If no plan of the ports can be procured, you are to point out with what wind veſſels can come in and go out, and what is the greateſt draught of water with which veſſels can enter therein deeply laden.

PROCEEDINGS *of the* IMPERIAL PARLIAMENT *on the* SUBJECT *of the* WAR *with* FRANCE.

ON Monday, May 16, the following meſſage from his majeſty was ſent to both houſes of parliament.

'G. R.

'His majeſty thinks proper to acquaint the houſe of lords, that the diſcuſſions which his majeſty announced, on the 8th of March, as then ſubſiſting between his majeſty and the French government, have terminated.—The conduct of the French government has obliged his majeſty to recall his ambaſſador from Paris; and the ambaſſador from the French republic has left London.—His majeſty has given directions for laying before the houſe of lords, with as little delay as poſſible, copies of ſuch papers as may be proper for the information of parliament on this important ſubject.—It is a conſolation to his majeſty to reflect that no endeavour has been wanting on his part to preſerve the bleſſings of peace; but, under the circumſtances which have occurred to diſappoint his juſt expectations, his majeſty relies with perfect confidence on the zeal and public ſpirit of the houſe of lords, and upon the exertions of his brave and loyal ſubjects, to ſupport his determination to employ the power and reſources of the country in oppoſing the ſpirit of ambition and encroachment which now actuates the conduct of the French government, in upholding the dignity of his crown, and in aſſerting and maintaining the rights and eſſential intereſts of his people.'

HOUSE OF LORDS.

Monday, May 23.

The order of the day being read for taking his majeſty's meſſage into conſideration,

Lord PELHAM roſe to move an addreſs of thanks in anſwer thereto. He had no doubt but that the very great importance of the papers, which he, by his majeſty's directions, had laid upon the table, had been ſufficient to induce their lordſhips to read them with care and attention; and as, in his opinion, they were fully adequate to explain the whole of the negociation, and the cauſe of our preſent rupture with France, it was unneceſſary for him to detain the houſe by going through the whole of them. His lordſhip then moved the following addreſs:

'That an humble addreſs be preſented to his majeſty, to return his majeſty the thanks of this houſe for his moſt gracious meſſage, and for the communication of the ſeveral papers, which have been laid before them in obedience to his majeſty's command.

'To aſſure his majeſty of the juſt ſenſe we entertain of his majeſty's anxious and uniform endeavours to preſerve to his people the bleſſings of peace, and of our perfect confidence in his majeſty's diſpoſition to terminate the calamities of war, whenever that object can be accompliſhed, conſiſtently with the honour of his majeſty's crown, and the intereſts of his people.

'That we have obſerved, with the ſtrongeſt feelings of indignation, that his majeſty's endeavours have been fruſtrated by that reſtleſs ſpirit of ambition and domination by which the government of France have been led to advance pretenſions the moſt extravagant and injurious, and to avow deſigns at once inconſiſtent with the obligations of good faith, and with the eſſential intereſts of the Britiſh empire, and that for theſe indignities and provocations his majeſty has in vain demanded ſatisfaction and redreſs.

'That, actuated by theſe ſentiments, we feel that the truſt repoſed in us by a brave and loyal people, requires, on our part, a firm determination to co-operate with his majeſty, in calling forth the reſources of the united kingdom for the vigorous ſupport of a cauſe, in which are involved the dignity of his majeſty's crown, the rights and liberties of his people, and all that is dear and valuable to us as a free and independent nation.'

On the queſtion being put, there appeared contents 142, non-contents 10.

[The intereſting diſcuſſions on this important ſubject, in the lords, we muſt defer till our next number.]

HOUSE OF COMMONS.

Monday, May 23.

BY a new arrangement in the admiſſion of ſtrangers to the gallery of the houſe, not a ſingle reporter belonging to any paper was able to obtain admittance: Mr. Pitt, we underſtand, delivered one of the moſt nervous, eloquent, and impreſſive ſpeeches, that ever was heard within the walls of the houſe of commons—a ſpeech calculated to excite in the people of this country union, ſpirit, and exertion, at

the ſame time not diſguiſing or leſſening the difficulties we have to encounter, and the ſerious ſacrifices we muſt make in the proſecution of the war upon which we are now entered.

Lord Hawkeſbury is ſaid to have opened the debate, explaining in the moſt clear and ſatisfactory manner, the different points contained in his majeſty's declaration, and deducing from thence an ample juſtification of the meaſures adopted by his majeſty's miniſters.

The houſe of commons continued ſitting until half after one o'clock in the morning, when the debate was adjourned.

Tueſday, May 24.

Mr. GRENVILLE moved the order of the day for reſuming the debate on the addreſs on his majeſty's moſt gracious meſſage.

The order of the day was then read, and the debate ordered to be reſumed, when the ſpeaker having read the addreſs originally propoſed, (the ſame as inſerted above in the proceedings of the houſe of lords) pledging the houſe to ſupport his majeſty in the proſecution of the war; and alſo the following amendment moved by Mr. Grey, to omit all after the firſt paragraph, and to inſert,

'To aſſure his majeſty of our firm determination to co-operate with his majeſty in calling forth the reſources of the united kingdom for the vigorous proſecution of the war [in which we are involved; and to expreſs to his majeſty the ſatisfaction with which his faithful commons have received his majeſty's gracious declaration, that he is willing to afford, as far as may be conſiſtent with his own honour and the intereſts of his people, every facility to any juſt arrangement by which the bleſſings of peace may be reſtored to his loyal ſubjects.'

Mr. THOMAS GRENVILLE expreſſed his ſentiments on the truly important queſtion now ſubmitted to the conſideration of the houſe at conſiderable length, and concluded by voting for the original addreſs: which was likewiſe ably ſupported by Mr. Dallas, general Maitland, Mr. Eliot, Mr. Beſt, and Mr. Canning.

Mr. Whitbread warmly ſupported the amendment made by his hon. friend Mr. Grey.

Mr. FOX ſaid, he would have been unwilling, after the long diſcuſſion which had already taken place, to trouble the houſe, if he had not felt it to be a duty which he owed to the people of England, to endeavour to reſcue them out of the ſituation of great danger into which they were about to be plunged. The gentlemen who had ſupported the original motion, deſired that the queſtion of the juſtice of the caſe ſhould be tried ſeparately from that of the conduct of miniſters. In his opinion, however, thoſe queſtions could not be ſeparated. Was it not ſtated as a ground of this war, that ſatisfaction and redreſs for grievances had been aſked and refuſed? But a great deal depended on the time and manner in which that ſatisfaction and redreſs had been demanded, and it was impoſſible to decide on the conduct of a foreign government, without taking that part of the ſubject into ſerious conſideration. He denied that inſults could be conſidered as a ground of quarrel between the two countries. It was not the giving of an inſult, but the refuſal of ſatisfaction, which conſtituted a juſt ground of War. It would have been a noble meaſure, if England and France had united to prevent the partition of Poland; but not having done that, if they were at a future period to go to war with the partitioning powers, it would be abſurd to ſtate in a declaration 'Your partition of Poland is a proof of your *malus animus* againſt us.' Yet the declaration againſt France was drawn up upon ſimilar principles. He did not conſider Malta of that vaſt importance which perſons ſeemed now diſpoſed to attach to it. He could recollect very well what was the opinion of the eloquent defender (Mr. Pitt) in that houſe, that if we retained part of our conqueſts in either the Mediterranean or the Indies, he ſhould prefer the Indies, and therefore gave the preference to the two ceded iſlands. He was not, however, of that opinion. He thought always that Minorca would have been better than Trinidad, for inſtance. Gentlemen ſeemed ſurpriſed at Bonaparte's deſire of poſſeſſing Egypt, yet there was nothing ſo ſtrange in it. But if the firſt conſul really regarded Malta as the key to Egypt and the Indies, ſurely he would not have been ſo imprudent as to publiſh what was ſo likely to prevent his acquiring it. If he were permitted to obſerve on the actions of great men, he ſhould ſay that the expedition to Egypt was altogether wild, romantic, and abſurd, and that it afforded no means for any thing like an early attack on our Eaſt India Provinces. But Egypt, it had been ſaid, is 'Conſecrated Ground by the blood of the Britiſh Heroes who fought and died there.' This was rather too romantic and ſuperſtitious for

ſober debate. It ſeemed a weak cauſe that required to be eked out by ſuch generally allowed compliments to our ſailors and ſoldiers. A learned gentleman had called the Eaſt Indies the vital intereſts of the country. He had ſpoken eloquently enough, and ſaid that we did not go to war for Malta, but for Egypt, of which it was the key—not for Egypt, but for India, the vital intereſts of England! Now all this was very well; but after every thing that has been ſaid about Egypt, a Frenchman might ſay, look at India. Which has moſt aggrandized herſelf, France in Europe, or Great Britain in India?—As to Egypt, the right hon. gentleman ought to know that Vergennes, the miniſter of Louis XVI, had an expedition thither in contemplation, and how did the right hon. gentleman reſent that? Why, exactly by making a treaty of commerce with him! We ought not to ſuffer ourſelves to be deceived by the hyperboles of eloquence out of our common ſenſe. We were bound by our treaty to deliver up Malta at a certain time. This article was ſaid to be of the miniſter's own manufacture. As to the article concerning the guarantee, the two other articles are not affected by it; and they provide for the appointment of the Grand Maſter and the garriſon of Neapolitan troops. Well! but France wiſhed to throw difficulties in the way! How? For the purpoſe of preventing its ſurrender? What was France to get by that? Miniſters are then angry that France was not as zealous as themſelves in endeavouring to procure the acceptance of the guaranteeſhip of Malta. What ſaid Ruſſia? She would do it, upon certain conditions. What ſignified the Malteſe langues, about which ſo much was ſaid? Was it for a point of good faith? Why, if it was kept by England for ten years, the knights of Malta might go where they pleaſed! But then comes colonel Sebaſtiani's report, with the mighty diſcloſure of the firſt conſul's deſire to retain Egypt. The letter is a complete proof of a military officer having been ſent to take military ſurveys, and form, probably, military connections for France. Then miniſters find a deſire, which they immediately convert into a deſign and overt act of ſeizing on Egypt. As to the reflections contained in the letter on general Stuart, he conſidered them as moſt unfair and unmanly, and deſerving of the higheſt reprobation. He was happy, however, they could do him no harm, as he underſtood him to be a very meritorious and intelligent officer, and a deſerving man. In a political point of view, that report was moſt abſurd; but of itſelf it does not amount to a ground of war. Let any man name a year from the treaty of Utrecht in time of peace, when the old French government had not ſome ſuch miſſionary at work. In this he was fortified by the ſecretary of ſtate's ſpeech, which ſtated, that in no time of peace following the three laſt treaties of 1749, 1763, and 1783, had one year elapſed without an indication of hoſtility and an infraction of peace. Would he on this principle have made war conſtantly on every one of thoſe grounds? How monſtrous, how extravagant! Europe would not have had a ſhort breathing time once in a century from the horrors of war! He thought the curious converſation with lord Whitworth had ſome marks of openneſs. If the conſul had not mentioned the idea of Turkey falling to pieces, he muſt have obſerved a greatre degree of reſerve than is uſual in any political converſation in Europe. Why, the late empreſs of Ruſſia was well known to have deſigns upon Turkey, and the naming of her ſon Conſtantine, was once ſaid to be with that view. Who ever heard of an idea of war by the ſovereigns of Europe againſt her on that ground? We muſt be acquainted with all the circumſtances in ſuch caſes, before we can pronounce judgment. What might not be ſaid on countermanding the evacuation of the Cape? They might ſay we were determined to break the treaty; we had a miniſter who ſaid, he that gave up the Cape ought to loſe his head, and the Engliſh were, it might be ſaid, reſolved to break the treaty for that and ſuch purpoſes. The publication of Sebaſtiani's report is of itſelf a proof rather that it was not to be conſidered as an hoſtile aggreſſion. Then came a part of the negociation, incomprehenſible indeed, on both ſides, but moſt ſo on ours. Lord Whitworth goes to requeſt an explanation. On what? ſays the French miniſter; Oh, I can tell nothing about it, ſir! Then explanation is changed for ſecurity, and ſecurity for Malta in perpetuity, and laſt of all Malta for ten years! Having puſhed the conſul as far as prudence would permit, it was thought better to make it a little eaſy: and ſo, as a ghoſt comes in after a tragedy, they bring up ſome more propoſals and conditions at the end. As in the rehearſal a king of Sardinia is brought in who had

been dead before the play, and with Malta at his tail!—[*A laugh.*]—So we puſhed the conſul hard, and then to make a ſhow of ſomething, they cry, 'Bring in the king of Sardinia,' and then they put him out again along with Switzerland as eaſily as poſſible. The hon. member went into a great variety of particulars in detail of the negociation. He conſidered that miniſters had declined to remonſtrate where they ought to have done ſo, and particularly in the caſe of Holland. They were now on the eve of a new war, the end of which, God only knew. They had loſt all the opportunities preſented to them of doing any thing for the equilibrium of Europe, on a broad and noble ſcale, and now had come down to the houſe upon a ſheer Britiſh queſtion of intereſt, to parade about Europe! They had deſtroyed the work of their own hands. But could this be recalled? He thought it might. Ruſſia ſeemed deſirous of interpoſing. He would prefer having England and Ruſſia as joint guarantees of Malta, than England alone; for the alliance of that great ſovereign, of whom ſuch honourable reports are daily made, would be far more valuable to Britain than twenty Maltas! Even were he only to guarantee Egypt, it would be better than Malta! He believed that ſovereign ſaw in a proper light the injuſtice and oppreſſion of France toward Holland and Switzerland; and it might be in our power to gain the alliance of that ſovereign to make a *grand barrier* to protect the weaker and ſecondary ſtates of Europe againſt the ſtrong, and to free not only Holland and Switzerland, but perhaps even Spain itſelf, from the domination of France. But we muſt firſt have Ruſſia; then, perhaps, ſome of the German princes; but we were getting back, to the old, ſordid, miſerable principle about an iſland! a great deal had been ſaid about a tone of inſulting ſuperiority; but what ſays Bonaparte? '*Je vous ecraſerai?*' No; but 'it is one hundred to one againſt me, as I am likely to go to the bottom of the ſea!' This was no proud tone! He was glad to find him of that opinion; but our miniſter ſaid no, in the language of Almanzor, in the Conqueſt of Grenada—

Thou ſhalt not dare
To be ſo impudent as to deſpair.

Sir, ſaid Mr. Fox, I am of the conſul's opinion. I am happy in that good fortune, and I ſee no great inſolence in his announcing it.—He therefore recommended that the houſe ſhould agree to the amendment, and that an alliance ſhould be formed with Ruſſia for the prevention of French aggreſſion. The other alternative was war. We had talked much more of other countries than of our own; he wiſhed, however, gentlemen to recollect the ſtate of the country during the latter period of the laſt war.—What was the ſtate of villagers, of tradeſmen, even of gentlemen of moderate incomes? He had heard talk of economical war: it could not be meant in the vulgar ſenſe. We ſhould now have exertions to make to which all former exertions were as nothing. This we had been told laſt night pretty plainly, and this not in the flouriſhing ſpeech of a young member but an old member, no novice, but an artiſt (alluding to Mr. Pitt, who ſat under the gallery). 'I,' ſays that right hon. gentleman, 'who have had ſuch great practice formerly, in drawing your teeth and paring your fingers, cutting you to the quick indeed pretty often, have provided for you a new operator, who has an entire new diſcipline. You fought laſt war for religion and ſocial order, and the balance of power, but that's all nothing to what you are now to expect. Prepare! lord North and myſelf were mere triflers. You are not to think of a year, but a continuation of years, and an addition of 2 or 300 millions of debt. The income tax was to many intolerable, but the new income tax will be much more ſevere and oppreſſive. We muſt expect great improvements in thoſe meaſures, and in the mode too of enforcing them. The laſt income tax was pretty near to an inquiſition, but the next will complete the buſineſs! Don't let any body think of paying any thing leſs than a fifth, a fourth, or perhaps a third, if neceſſary. Don't let him think of paying leſs than fifteen ſhillings out of a guinea, nor of keeping a drawer which ſhall not be liable to be opened to the inſpector!" And all this for what? Why, for Malta! plain Malta! plain Malta, after all! Malta, unconnected with any great, general, generous intereſt of Europe!—He wiſhed this amendment now to paſs, and afterward an addreſs to his majeſty on the ſubject of Ruſſian interference.

The CHANCELLOR OF THE EXCHEQUER ſaid, that he never heard with more admiration the talents of the hon. gentleman, nor had greater occaſion to lament that the effuſions of his great and exalted mind ſhould have been employed for the purpoſe for which they were then applied. It certainly was not the intention of that hon. gentleman to produce the effect of unhinging and unnerving the houſe, at a pe-

riod the moſt important for the conſideration of the moſt momentous ſubject that could come before parliament; and he could not help lamenting that ſuch powers ſhould have been employed to give encouragement where there ought not to be encouragement given, namely, to our enemies. He would put it to the candour of that hon. gentleman's mind, and would aſk him, upon reflection, whether he thought the language he had uſed was not likely to accompliſh an object, which he could not wiſh to have accompliſhed?—Whether he thought, that deſcribing that ſubject in the manner in which he had deſcribed it, was neceſſary for any good purpoſe: and whether he thought it fair to make ſuch an appeal as he had done to the feelings of mankind, for the purpoſe of enliſting them, as it were, to fight againſt their public duty? Such might be the effect of the eloquence of the hon. gentleman that night; but he had a firm reliance on the good ſenſe and fortitude of the people of this country; and he had a perfect conviction that at that moment they felt the danger of their ſituation, and would not be led away by any artifice or eloquence whatever. He ſhould not follow the hon. gentleman into a minute detail of this caſe; he ſhould reſt it upon its plain and obvious good ſenſe. Having been one of thoſe who adviſed his majeſty to ſend to parliament the meſſage on which the addreſs now before the houſe was moved, he was ſatisfied to reſt with the houſe the conſideration of his motives, and that of his colleagues, upon this occaſion, and he hoped the houſe were ſatisfied that no reluctance had ever been ſhewn on his part to enter into that diſcuſſion; he ſhould not ſhrink from the moment of diſcuſſion? but on the contrary, waited with impatience for the arrival of the moment when every part of his conduct might be canvaſſed by the houſe. He hoped it would be the general opinion of the houſe that night, that his majeſty's miniſters had been ſincere in their conduct, and their endeavours to preſerve peace, although the hon. gentleman who ſpoke laſt, had ſaid they were not ſo, and had objected to the addreſs on that account. Now, what were the words of the addreſs in that particular? 'That this houſe entertains a juſt ſenſe of his majeſty's anxious and uniform endeavours to preſerve to his people the bleſſings of peace.' Such were the words, and he never expected to hear in that houſe, that ſuch endeavours for the preſervation of peace had not been ſincere. He now, however, knew there were many; he wiſhed to God there were not ſo many, who thought they were not ſincere in ſuch endeavours, and there were others who thought that, although they were ſincere, they had not been wiſe in their endeavours to preſerve peace. With regard to Switzerland, he juſtified the conduct of his majeſty's miniſters in the inſtructions which they gave to Mr. Moore in that reſpect—their object was to maintain the independence of Switzerland, and they expreſſed that object by Mr. Moore, and intended to ſupport the Swiſs, until it became impracticable, by their being overwhelmed. However, the interference of this country had not been totally uſeleſs in that reſpect, for although our wiſhes were not accompliſhed, yet much had been accompliſhed by our exertions, for he had reaſon to apprehend that our exertions had been the means of preventing the firſt conſul from declaring himſelf their firſt magiſtrate; this had been effected by the efforts of his majeſty's miniſters, and it was a gratification to them to find it ſo. He was convinced of this from the information of thoſe who had an opportunity of obſerving what paſſed in Switzerland, and from which he learned that the interpoſition of his majeſty's miniſters in that reſpect had been beneficial to the people of Switzerland. More might have been done, had their diſpoſition been properly ſupported, and more would have been endeavoured by miniſters in that caſe, but it was diſcovered that there was no correſponding diſpoſition in the other great powers of Europe to make a common cauſe with the people of Switzerland. An imputation had been caſt on his majeſty's miniſters, as if they had neglected their duty, in not having demanded ſatisfaction upon points, as they occurred; but it did appear to him, and he truſted it would appear to the houſe, that ſatisfaction had been demanded on each particular caſe which required it. He then referred to the correſpondence in ſeveral particulars relating to the report of Sebaſtiani, from which, he contended, it appeared to be the determination of the French government to interfere with reſpect to Egypt, and to conduct itſelf contrary to the expreſs proviſions of the treaty of Amiens, which provided for the integrity of the Turkiſh empire; and to various other parts of the correſpondence between lord Whitworth and the French miniſter, as well as to the long conference therein detailed, as it took place between lord Whitworth and the chief conſul himſelf; and alſo what related to Malta in particular, and maintained that it appeared from theſe extracts, that his majeſty's miniſters had never omitted any part of their duty, but had with great care and attention

endeavoured to perform it. He then went over the material parts of the correſpondence, as they applied to the offer that was made for the guarantee of Malta by the emperor of Ruſſia, &c. He made ſeveral comments upon this part of the caſe, tending to ſhew it was not the fault of this country that this part of the treaty was not carried into full execution. The hon. gentleman (Mr. Fox) had ſaid the war might yet be avoided: the war could certainly not be avoided, becauſe the war was already begun; but if the emperor of Ruſſia, or any other conſiderable power, ſhould be pleaſed to interfere with friendly intentions, and make any propoſition of a practical nature, by which peace might be reſtored, he was ſure there was not any individual in the houſe, or in this country, who would be more glad to attend to it than himſelf: and he would go further, and ſay, that he ſhould betray his duty to his ſovereign and his country, if he did not endeavour to forward ſuch an underſtanding, always remembering, that ſuch object ſhould appear practicable, before it ſhould be recommended to the conſideration of his majeſty, and alſo conſiſtent with the honour of the crown, and alſo of advantage to the country; he meant not the apparent advantage in the opinion of ſome perſons, but the real advantages of the people, and to give them the advantages of peace. Whenever that propoſition ſhould be thought adviſeable to be made, he ſhould feel a great ſatisfaction in being the inſtrument in laying it before his majeſty, and in adviſing his majeſty to ſhew, that which indeed he had invariably manifeſted, an inclination to peace when peace could be obtained with honour, and a repugnance to war when war was avoidable; but under the preſent circumſtances, he ſhould deceive the country, if he ſaid he ſaw any thing in the diſpoſition of the French government which warranted ſuch an expectation. We ought therefore to prepare for all the difficulties of an arduous conteſt. He was deſirous this ſhould be impreſſed on the mind of every individual member who did him the honour to attend to him, that he did not, and that he could not aſk for ſupport on any thing leſs than a conviction that he who does ſupport this ſyſtem, muſt make up his mind to great ſacrifices in a caſe which required them. We muſt provide effectually for our domeſtic ſecurity: many perſons, he was aware, muſt be put to great inconvenience, and they muſt ſuffer great deprivations for the purpoſe of having the country ſecured againſt the danger and the hatred with which it was already menaced. He wiſhed to impreſs upon the houſe theſe truths; that the preſent war was founded on unavoidable neceſſity, and that there is in his majeſty's miniſters, a ſincere diſpoſition to terminate this war, whenever it can be terminated with honour; but he was alſo anxious to impreſs upon the houſe, that it muſt make up its mind to meet our difficulties properly, in the face. The only regret he felt was, that ſtate to which the houſe was neceſſarily driven, by the want of unanimity; he would therefore indulge a hope, that the hon. gentleman oppoſite to him who had moved the amendment laſt night (Mr. Grey) would ſacrifice a private opinion in this caſe to the advantages of unanimity. With reſpect to the papers upon the table, he ſhould ſay nothing of them by way of comment, he ſhould leave them to ſpeak for themſelves. He was ſatisfied they furniſhed abundant materials for ſatisfying the houſe that the French were purſuing a courſe of aggrandiſement, which was inconſiſtent with the honour of this country: In a word, the cauſe we had to ſuſtain was founded on incontrovertible juſtice, againſt inſult and aggreſſion—a cauſe which had left to his majeſty or parliament no alternative.

The ATTORNEY GENERAL, alluding to Mr. Fox's ſpeech, ſaid, he could not ſuffer ſentiments, the moſt dangerous that ever were delivered in parliament, to paſs unnoticed.—(*a loud cry of hear! hear!*) He did not pretend to queſtion men's motives; but if an apologiſt of Bonaparte was in that houſe, he could not have advanced arguments more to the purpoſe than thoſe uſed by the hon. gentleman.

Mr. WINDHAM ſaid, he roſe to notice one point in Mr. Fox's ſpeech, which he thought contained much miſchief; a point which had abſorbed all his attention. The houſe was deciding upon the queſtion of war, and diſcuſſions had taken place upon its juſtice and policy. If the hon. gentleman thought war impolitic or unjuſt, it was certainly his duty to delay or to prevent it as far as he was able; but he had no right to apply to it arguments which apply to war in its very nature, however politic or prudent, and thus, by enforcing non-reſiſtance, place the country at the foot of the enemy. The hon. member's arguments of the privations and evils attendant upon war, applied to all war, even the moſt ſucceſsful, in which the country was ever engaged.

A diviſion then took place, when the numbers were,—Againſt the amendment 398, for it 67, majority 331.

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Suffolk	55	3	——		21	8	19	6
Cambridge	52	1	33	10	23	0	16	5
Norfolk	54	0	——		21	3	18	10
Lincoln	53	8	31	4	22	5	15	10
York	54	8	37	10	22	7	16	3
Durham	56	3	——		30	6	20	1
Northumberland	52	5	40	0	21	9	18	0
Cumberland	65	2	48	0	29	4	23	8
Weſtmorland	70	4	43	8	28	4	23	8
Lancaſter	60	7	—		—	—	21	0
Cheſter	58	5	——		27	0	19	9
Flint	None		bro't		forSale		——	
Denbigh	62	5	——		28	0	22	3
Angleſea	——		——		——		13	6
Carnarvon	66	0	——		25	0	15	9
Merioneth	64	8	——		29	4	20	0
Cardigan	60	9	——		18	11	13	4
Pembroke	51	9	——		20	11	13	2
Carmarthen	60	0	——		20	10	13	4
Glamorgan	56	10	——		23	4	20	4
Glouceſter	56	0	——		22	9	21	7
Somerſet	57	1	——		23	4	20	2
Monmouth	55	7	——		23	10	——	
Devon	61	9	——		22	8	19	8
Cornwall	61	8	——		23	5	22	3
Dorſet	57	0	——		22	3	20	9
Hants	55	5	——		23	5	21	7

Average of England and Wales.

Per Quarter	57	8	35	9	24	1	19	10

May 27—Peck Loaf 3s 1d.

METEOROLOGICAL JOURNAL, April 1803.

D.	H.	Baro.	T.out	T.in.	H.	C.	Wind.	Weather, &c.	Rain 1,18
1	7	30,17	44,5	52,5	53	0	WSW 1		
	2	30,03	64,5	57	45	1	SW 2	. rather thick upward at night	
2	7	29,76	52	55	52	2	S 1		
	2	29,71	59,5	58	55	3	SSW 2	. cloudy eve. little rain	
3	7	29,69	51,5	55	56	5	S 1	. little rain. fine	
	2	29,72	55,5	56	56	3	SSW 2	: cloudy and little rain	
4	7	29,87	47,5	54	56	5	SW 1	. fine	
	2	29,94	54	54,5	47	3	WSW 2	. little wet at night. fine	
5	7	30,1	45,5	52	56	1	SW 1		
	2	30,23	50	54	50	3	SW 2		
6	7	30,29	44,5	48	51	2	S 1	. foggy. fine	
	2	30,15	59	54,5	45	2	S 1	. more cloudy night	
7	7	29,79	48,5	52,5	61	3	SE 0	foggy. fine	
F	2	29,74	58	55	37	3	S 2	. cloudy eve. rain at times	
8	7	29,62	49	53,5	92	6	SW 1	chiefly gentle rain	
	2	29,87	51,5	54	61	5	WSW 1	little rain at times: rainy	
9	7	29,98	47,5	52,5	62	5	NNW 1	hazy and rainy. fair	
	2	30,04	54	54	62	5	NNE 1	. less cloudy. more cloudy and little wet	
10	7	30,24	49	52	62	4	S 1	hazy. brighter at times	
	2	30,31	58	56	56	3	W 1	. cloudy: fine	
11	7	30,49	47	53,5	56	2	NW 1		
	2	30,54	61	57	44	1	N 1	. wind s	
12	7	30,60	44	52	59		E 1	hazy	
	2	30,60	57	55	47	0	E 1		
13	7	30,59	42	49,5	57	0	E 1	hazy	
	2	30,56	59	55,5	49	0	E 2		
14	7	30,55	44	51	58	0	E 1	hazy	
	2	30,51	63,5	58	59	0	E 2		
15	7	30,43	46	52,5	52	0	E 1	little foggy	
	2	30,37	65	59,5	44	0	E 1		
16	7	30,18	48	54	53	0	E 1	little foggy: wind s	
	2	30,05	70,5	61,5	40	1	S 2	: cloudy	
17	7	30,04	53	56,5	56	4	SSW 3	. little wet. fine	
	2	30,09	60	58	45	3	SW 2	. cloudy eve. little rain	
18	7	29,91	47,5	55	55	5	W 3	little rain. fine	
	2	30,02	52,5	56	45	3	W 2	. little rain. fine: windy. cloudy. little rain	
19	7	29,73	48,5	52,5	59	5	W 4	. chiefly cloudy and little rain at times	
	2	29,73	53,5	55	48	4	W 3	. little rain at times. clear night	
20	7	29,73	43,5	51	51	2	W 2	. more wind and showery [and little rain	
	2	29,73	51,5	53	45	3	WNW 4	. less wind and little wet. cloudy night: windy	
21	7	29,31	52,5	52,5	60	5	W 4	. little rain at times and chiefly cloudy	
N	2	29,33	54	54	52	4	W 3	. fine night and less wind	
22	7	29,45	44	51	54	1	WSW 1	. more wind. chiefly cloudy and little rain	
	2	29,51	51	52,5	50	4	W 3	. showers but chiefly fine and less wind	
23	7	29,69	44	50,5	56	1	SW 1	chiefly cloudy: little rain	
	2	29,72	49,5	52,5	53	4	WSW 1	little rain at times. clear night	
24	7	29,79	41,5	49,5	59	1	WSW 2	cloudy at times: thunder and little wet	
	2	29,83	52,5	51,5	49	3	WNW 2	. thunder showers. rainy eve. fine	
25	7	30,05	40,5	49	56	1	W 1	hazy. chiefly cloudy	
	2	30,14	51	52	52	3	W 1	. rain. fine eve	
26	7	30 26	39,5	48,5	55	1	WSW 1	hazy. more cloudy	
	2	30,00	52,5	51,5	48	4	WSW 2	. little rain in the night	
27	7	29,75	45	49,5	55	4	NNW 1	. little wet at times	
	2	29,75	50,5	51,5	52	3	N 2	. little rain. clear night	
28	7	30,04	39	47	55	2	N 1	. chiefly cloudy with little wet hail and snow	
	2	30,11	46	47,5	50	5	N 2	. little wet	
29	7	30,23	41	46	54	1	N 0	little foggy. little wet and snow: less cloudy	
	2	30,23	49,5	48	51	3	N 1	hazy. more cloudy	
30	7	30,08	45	48,5	55		S 1		
	2	30,01	52,5	51	50	5	WSW 1	: little rain	

PRICES of STOCKS, from April 28 to May 26, 1803, both inclusive.

By Anthony Clarke, Stockbroker, No. 29, Princes-Street, Lothbury.

Days	Bank Stock.	3 per C. reduced.	3 per C. consols.	4 per C. Anns.	5 per Ct. Ann. 1797	Navy 5 per Ct.	Long Anns.	Short Anns.	India Stock.	Imperial 3 per C. shut.	Imperial Ann. shut.	Exc. Bills 3½d p. day 1s dif.	Exc. Bills 3d per day	English Lot. Tic.
28	171	64 7/8	65 7/8 65 1/2	82 1/2		100 1/4	19 1/4		207					
29	171 1/4	65	65 3/8 64 3/4	82 7/8	99 1/8	100 1/8	19 1/4	4	206 1/4			1		
30		63 1/4	64 1/2 63 1/2	81	98	99 3/8	18 3/4							
2	167 1/4	63	64 1/2 63 3/4	80 7/8	98 1/8	99 1/8	18 7/8		203					
3	169	64 1/8	63 3/4 63 1/2	82 1/4	99 1/8	100 1/4	19 1/8		206					
4		64	63 3/4 65 1/4	81 1/4	98 1/4	99 1/4	19		205			1		
5		70 1/8	70 73	87 1/8	103	104 1/2	20		219			1		
6	167	64	65 1/2 62 3/4	81	98 1/8	99	18 3/8	4				1		
7		64	65 1/4 63 1/2		98 1/8	99 1/8	19 1/8		shut.			1		
9	166	63 5/8	65 1/2 63 7/8	81	98	99 1/2	19	4	204 1/2			2		
10	166	63 1/8	64 1/8 63 1/2	81	97 7/8	99 1/8	18 7/8	4	203 1/2			2		
11		63	64 63 3/8	80 1/8	97 7/8	99	18 1/4	3				2		
12	166	64	63 3/4 65	80 1/4	98	99 1/4	18 1/4	4	201 1/2			2		
13		64 1/8	64 1/4 65 1/4	81	98 1/4	99 1/8	19	4				2		
14		64 1/8	64 1/4 61	81 1/4	99	100	19	4				1		
16		61 1/8	62 1/2 60 3/8	78 1/4	96 1/4	97 1/8	18					1		
17		58 1/8	59 1/2 1/8			95 1/8			185			2		
18	152 1/2	58 1/4	59 3/4 1/4	75 1/4	94 1/8	95 1/4	17 3/8	3 7/8				2		
19		59	59 5/8 60									1		
20	153 1/2	59 1/4	60 1/8 59 1/2	75	93 1/8	94 1/4	17 1/8		203	57 1/2		1		
21	152 1/2	58 1/4	59 1/4 5/8	74 1/4	93 1/8	94 1/8	17 1/8	3 7/8	181	57	10 1/8	1		
23	151 1/4	58 1/2	59 1/2 58 1/2	74 1/2	93 1/8	94 1/4	17 1/4		182	57	10 1/8	1		
24	150	57 7/8	58 1/2 57 1/2	73 5/8	92 7/8	93 1/4	17		180			2		
25	145	57	57 7/8 1/8	73	92	92 1/4	16 7/8	3 3/4		55 3/8	9 7/8	1		
26	146	57 1/8	57 7/8 58 1/8	73	91 7/8	93	16 3/4	3 3/8				3		

☞ In the 3 per Cent. consols. the highest and lowest Price of each Day is given; in every other Article the highest Price only, the Long, Short, and Imperial Annuities excepted, which are given within a fixteenth of the highest Price. In the different Funds that are shut, the Prices are given with the Dividend till the Days of Opening.